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 HISTORY OF THE
 EARTH
 AND
 ANIMATED NATURE



By Oliver Goldsmith

(LONDON)

Published by Edw^d Poole 1825

HISTORY OF THE
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AND
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A
HISTORY OF THE EARTH,
AND
ANIMATED NATURE.

BY OLIVER GOLDSMITH, M. B.

ILLUSTRATED WITH COPPERPLATES.

A NEW EDITION, WITH CORRECTIONS AND ADDITIONS,
IN FIVE VOLUMES.—VOL. IV.

PHILADELPHIA:
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1. Spoonbill 2. Crane 3. Egret

A HISTORY OF BIRDS.

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PART V. OF BIRDS OF THE CRANE KIND.

CHAPTER I.

OF BIRDS OF THE CRANE KIND IN GENERAL.

THE progressions in nature from one class of beings to another, are always by slow and almost imperceptible degrees. She has peopled the woods and the fields with a variety of the most beautiful birds; and, to leave no part of her extensive territories untenanted, she has stocked the waters with its feathered inhabitants also: she has taken the same care in providing for the wants of her animals in this element, as she has done with respect to those of the other: she has used as much precaution to render water fowl fit for swimming, as she did in forming land fowl for flight: she has defended their feathers with a natural oil, and united their toes by a webbed membrane; by which contrivances they have at once security and motion. But between the classes of

land birds that shun the water, and of water fowl that are made for swimming and living on it, she has formed a very numerous tribe of birds, that seem to partake of a middle nature; that, with divided toes, seemingly fitted to live upon land, are at the same time furnished with appetites that chiefly attach them to the waters. These can properly be called neither land birds nor water fowl, as they provide all their sustenance from watery places, and yet are unqualified to seek it in those depths where it is often found in greatest plenty.

This class of birds, of the crane kind, are to be distinguished from others rather by their appetites than their conformation. Yet even in this respect they seem to be sufficiently discriminated by nature: as they are to live among the waters, yet are incapable of swimming in them, most of them have long legs, fitted for wading in shallow waters, or long bills proper for groping in them.

Every bird of this kind habituated to marshy places, may be known, if not by the length of its legs, at least by the scaly surface of them. Those who have observed the legs of a snipe or a woodcock will easily perceive my meaning; and how different the surface of the skin that covers them is from that of the pigeon or the partridge. Most birds of this kind, also, are bare of feathers half way up the thigh; at least, in all of them, above the knee. Their long habits of wading in the waters, and having their legs continually in moisture, prevents the growth of feathers on those parts; so that there is a surprising difference between the leg of a crane, naked of feathers almost up to the body, and the falcon, booted almost to the very toes.

The bill also is very distinguishable in most of this class. It is, in general, longer than that of other birds, and in some finely fluted on every side; while

at the point it is possessed of extreme sensibility, and furnished with nerves for the better feeling their food at the bottom of marshes, where it cannot be seen. Some birds of this class are thus fitted with every convenience; they have long legs for wading, long necks for stooping, long bills for searching, and nervous points for feeling. Others are not so amply provided for; as some have long bills, but legs of no great length; and others have long necks, but very short legs. It is a rule which universally holds, that where the bird's legs are long, the neck is also long in proportion. It would indeed be an incurable defect in the bird's conformation, to be lifted upon stilts above its food, without being furnished with an instrument to reach it.

If we consider the natural power of this class, in a comparative view, they will seem rather inferior to those of every other tribe. Their nests are more simple than those of the sparrow; and their methods of obtaining food less ingenious than those of the falcon: the pie exceeds them in cunning; and though they have all the voraciousness of the poultry tribe, they want their fecundity. None of this kind, therefore, have been taken into man's society, or under his protection: they are neither caged like the nightingale, nor kept tame like the turkey, but lead a life of precarious liberty, in fens and marshes, at the edges of lakes, and along the sea-shore. They all live upon fish or insects, one or two only excepted: even those that are called *Mud-suckers*, such as the snipe and the woodcock, it is more than probable, grope the bottom of marshy places only for such insects as are deposited there by their kind, and live in a vermicular state in pools and splashes, till they take wing and become flying insects.

All this class, therefore, that are fed upon insects, their food being easily digestible, are good to be

eaten; while those who live entirely upon fish abounding in oil, acquire in their flesh the rancidity of their diet, and are in general unfit for our tables. To savages, indeed, and sailors on a long voyage, every thing that has life seems good to be eaten, and we often find them recommending those animals as dainties, which they themselves would spurn at after a course of good living. Nothing is more common in their journals than such accounts as these—"This day we shot a fox—pretty good eating; this day we shot a heron—pretty good eating; and this day we killed a turtle—which they rank with the heron and the fox as pretty good eating." Their accounts, therefore, of the flesh of these birds are not to be depended upon; and when they cry up the heron or the stork of other countries as luxurious food, we must always attend to the state of their appetites who give the character.

In treating of this class of birds, it will be best to observe the simplest method possible; neither to load the memory with numerous distinctions, nor yet confuse the imagination by a total want of arrangement. I will therefore describe some of the larger sorts separately, as, in a history of birds, each of these demands peculiar distinction. The Crane, the Stork, the Balearic Crane, the Heron, the Bittern, with some others, may require a separate history. Some particular tribes may next offer, that may very naturally be classed together; and as for all the smaller and least remarkable sorts, they may be grouped into one general description.

CHAPTER II.

THE CRANE.

THERE is something extraordinary in the different accounts we have of this bird's size and dimensions. Willoughby and Pennant make the crane from five to six feet long from the tip to the tail. Other accounts say, that it is above five feet high; and others, that it is as tall as a man. From the many which I myself had seen, I own this imputed magnitude surprised me, as from memory I was convinced they could neither be so long nor so tall. Indeed a bird, the body of which is not larger than that of a turkey-hen, and acknowledged on all hands not to weigh above ten pounds, cannot easily be supposed to be almost as long as an ostrich. Brisson, however, seems to give this bird its real dimensions, when he describes it as something less than the brown stork, about three feet high, and about four from the tip to the tail. Still, however, the numerous testimonies of its superior size are not to be totally rejected; and perhaps that from which Brisson took his dimensions was one of the smallest of the kind.

The crane, taking its dimensions from him, is exactly three feet four inches from the tip to the tail, and four feet from the head to the toe. It is a tall slender bird, with a long neck and long legs. The top of the head is covered with black bristles, and the back of it is bald and red, which sufficiently distinguishes this bird from the stork, to which it is very nearly allied in size and figure. The plumage, in general, is ash-coloured; and there are two large tufts of feathers that spring from the pinion of each wing. These bear a resemblance to hair, and are finely curled at the ends, which the bird has a power

of erecting and depressing at pleasure. Gesner says that these feathers, in his time, used to be set in gold, and worn as ornaments in caps.

Such are the dimensions of a bird, concerning which, not to mention modern times, there have been more fables propagated than of any other. It is a bird with which all the ancient writers are familiar, and in describing it they have not failed to mix imagination with history. From the policy of the cranes, they say, we are to look for an idea of the most perfect republic amongst ourselves; from their tenderness to their decrepit parents, which they take care to nourish, to cherish, and support when flying, we are to learn lessons of filial piety; but particularly from their conduct in fighting with the pigmies of *Æthiopia*, we are to receive our maxims in the art of war. In early times the history of nature fell to the lot of poets only, and certainly none could describe it so well: but it is a part of their province to embellish also; and when this agreeable science was claimed by a more sober class of people, they were obliged to take the accounts of things as they found them; and in the present instance, fable ran down, blended with truth, to posterity.

In these accounts, therefore, there is some foundation of truth, yet much more has been added by fancy. The crane is certainly a very social bird, and they are seldom seen alone. Their usual method of flying or sitting is in flocks of fifty or sixty together; and while a part feed, the rest stand like sentinels upon duty. The fable of their supporting their aged parents may have arisen from their strict connubial affection; and as for their fighting with the pigmies, it may not be improbable but that they have boldly withstood the invasions of monkeys coming to rob their nests; for, in this case, as the crane lives upon vegetables, it is not probable that it would be the first aggressor.

However this be, the crane is a wandering sociable bird, that for the most part subsists upon vegetables, and is known in every country of Europe except our own. There is no part of the world, says Bellonius, where the fields are cultivated, that the crane does not come in with the husbandman for a share in the harvest. As they are birds of passage, they are seen to depart and return regularly at those seasons when their provision invites or repels them. They generally leave Europe about the latter end of autumn, and return in the beginning of summer. In the inland parts of the continent they are seen crossing the country in flocks of fifty or a hundred, making from the northern regions towards the south. In these migrations, however, they are not so resolutely bent upon going forward, but that if a field of corn offers in their way they will stop a while to regale upon it: on such occasions they do incredible damage, chiefly in the night; and the husbandman, who lies down in joyful expectation, rises in the morning to see his fields laid entirely waste, by an enemy whose march is too swift for his vengeance to overtake.

Our own country is free from their visits, not but that they were formerly known in this island, and held in great estimation for the delicacy of their flesh; there was even a penalty upon such as destroyed their eggs; but at present they never go so far out of their way. Cultivation and populousness go hand in hand; and though our fields may offer them great plenty, yet it is so guarded, that the birds find the venture greater than the enjoyment, and probably we are much better off by their absence than their company. Whatever their flesh might once have been, when, as Plutarch tells us, cranes were blinded and kept in coops, to be fattened for the tables of the great in Rome; or as they were

brought up, stuffed with mint and rue, to the tables of our nobles at home; at present they are considered all over Europe as wretched eating. The flesh is fibrous and dry, requiring much preparation to make it palatable; and even after every art, it is fit only for the stomachs of strong and labouring people.

The cold arctic region seems to be this bird's favourite abode. They come down into the more southern parts of Europe rather as visitants than inhabitants; yet it is not well known in what manner they portion out their time to the different parts of the world. The migrations of the field-fare or thrush are obvious and well known; they go northward or southward, in one simple track; when their food fails them here, they have but one region to go to. But it is otherwise with the crane: he changes place, like a wanderer; he spends the autumn in Europe; he then flies off, probably to some more southern climate, to enjoy a part of the winter; returns to Europe in the spring; crosses up to the north in summer; visits those lakes that are never dry; and then comes down again, to make depredations upon our cultivated grounds in autumn. Thus, Gcsner assures us, that the cranes usually begin to quit Germany from about the eleventh of September to the seventeenth of October; from thence they were seen flying southward by thousands; and Redi tells us they arrive in Tuscany a short time after. There they tear up the fields, newly sown, for the grain just committed to the ground, and do great mischief. It is to be supposed, that in the severity of winter they go southward, still nearer the Line. They again appear in the fields of Pisa regularly about the twentieth of February, to anticipate the spring.

In these journeys it is amazing to conceive the heights to which they ascend when they fly. Their note is the loudest of all other birds; and that is of-

ten heard in the clouds, when the bird itself is entirely unseen. As it is light for its size, and spreads a large expanse of wing, it is capable of floating at the greatest height, where the air is lightest; and as it secures its safety, and is entirely out of the reach of man, it flies in tracts which would be too fatiguing for any other birds to move forward in.

In these aërial journeys, though unseen themselves, they have the distinctest vision of every object below. They govern and direct their flight by their cries; and exhort each other to proceed or to descend, when a fit opportunity offers for depredation. Their voice, it was observed, is the loudest of all the feathered tribe; and its peculiar clangour arises from the very extraordinary length and contortion of the windpipe. In quadrupeds the windpipe is short, and the glottis, or cartilages that form the voice, are at that end of it which is next the mouth: in water fowl the windpipe is longer, but the cartilages that form the voice are at the other end, which lies down in their belly. By this means they have much louder voices, in proportion to their size, than any other animals whatever; for the note, when formed below, is reverberated through all the rings of the windpipe till it reaches the air. But the voice of the duck or the goose is nothing to be compared to that of the crane, whose windpipe is not only made in the same manner with theirs, but is above twenty times as long. Nature seems to have bestowed much pains in lengthening out this organ. From the outside it enters through the flesh into the breast-bone, which hath a great cavity within to receive it. There, being thrice reflected, it goes out again at the same hole, and so turns down to the lungs; and thus enters the body a second time. The loud clangorous sound which the bird is thus enabled to produce, is, when near, almost deafening; however, it is particu-

larly serviceable to the animal itself, either during its migrations or its stay: by it the flock is encouraged in their journeys; and if, while they are feeding, which is usually performed in profound silence, they are invaded on any side, the bird that first perceives the danger is sure to sound the alarm, and all are speedily upon the wing.

As they rise but heavily, they are very shy birds, and seldom let the fowler approach them. Their depredations are usually made in the darkest nights; at which time they enter a field of corn, and trample it down, as if it had been crossed over by a regiment of soldiers. On other occasions they choose some extensive solitary marsh, where they range themselves all day, as if they were in deliberation; and not having that grain which is most to their appetites, wade the marshes for insects, and other food, which they can procure with less danger.

Corn is their favourite food; but there is scarcely any other that comes amiss to them. Redi, who opened several, found the stomach of one full of the herb called dandelion; that of another was filled with beans; a third had a great quantity of clover in its stomach; while that of two others was filled with earth-worms and beetles: in some he found lizards and sea fish; in others, snails, grass, and pebbles, swallowed, perhaps, for medical purposes. It seems, therefore, that these birds are easily supplied, and that they are noxious to corn fields but on some particular occasions.

In general it is a peaceful bird, both in its own society, and with respect to those of the forest. Though so large in appearance, a little falcon pursues, and often disables it. The method is, with those who are fond of hawking, to fly several hawks together against it, which the crane endeavours to avoid, by flying up perpendicularly, till the air becomes too

thin to support it any higher. The hawk, however, still bears it company; and though less fitted for floating in so thin a medium, yet, possessed of greater rapidity, it still gains the ascendancy. They both often rise out of sight; but soon the spectator, who keeps his eye fixed above, perceives them, like two specks, beginning to appear: they gather on his eye for a little space, and shortly after come tumbling perpendicularly together, with great animosity on the side of the hawk, and a loud screaming on that of the crane. Thus driven to extremity, and unable to fly, the poor animal throws itself upon its back, and in that situation makes a most desperate defence, till the sportsman coming up, generally puts an end to the contest with its life.

It was once the barbarous custom to breed up cranes to be thus baited, and young ones were taken from the nest to be trained up for this cruel diversion. It is an animal easily tamed; and, if we can believe Albertus Magnus, has a particular affection for man. This quality, however, was not sufficient to guard it from being made a victim of his fierce amusements. The female, which is easily distinguished from the male, by not being bald behind as he is, never lays above two eggs at a time, being like those of a goose, but of a bluish colour. The young ones are soon fit to fly, and then the parents forsake them to shift for themselves; but, before this time, they are led forth to the places where their food is most easily found. Though yet unfledged, they run with such swiftness that a man cannot easily overtake them. We are told, that as they grow old their plumage becomes darker; and, as a proof of their longevity, Aldrovandus assures us, that a friend of his kept one tame for above forty years.

Whatever may have been the disposition of the great, the vulgar of every country, to this day, bear

the crane a compassionate regard. It is possible the ancient prejudices in its favour, which, once having been planted, are eradicated but slowly, may still continue to operate. In some countries it is considered as a heinous offence to kill a crane; and though the legislature declines to punish, yet the people do not fail to resent the injury. The crane they in some measure consider as the prophet of the season: upon its approach or delay they regulate the periods of their rural economy. If their favourite bird comes early in the season, they expect a plentiful summer; if he is slow in his visits, they then prepare for an unfavourable spring. Whatever wisdom there may be in despising the prejudices of the vulgar, there is but little in condemning them. They have generally had their origin in good motives; and it should never be our endeavours to suppress any tender emotions of friendship or pity, in those hard breasts that are in general unsusceptible of either.

CHAPTER III.

THE STORK.

If we regard the Stork externally only, we shall be very apt to confound it with the crane. It is of the same size; it has the same formation as to the bill, neck, legs, and body, except that it is something more corpulent. Its differences are but very slight; such as the colour, which in the crane is ash and black, but in the stork is white and brown. The nails of the toes of the stork also are very peculiar, not being clawed like those of other birds, but flat like the nails of man.

These, however, are but very slight differences; and its true distinctions are to be taken rather from its manners than its form. The crane has a loud piercing voice; the stork is silent, and produces no other noise than the clacking of its under chap against the upper: the crane has a strange convolution of the windpipe through the breast-bone; the stork's is formed in the usual manner: the crane feeds mostly upon vegetables and grain; the stork preys entirely upon frogs, fishes, birds, and serpents: the crane avoids towns and populous places; the stork lives always in or near them: the crane lays but two eggs, and the stork generally four. These are distinctions fully sufficient to mark the species, notwithstanding the similitude of their form.

Storks are birds of passage, like the former; but it is hard to say whence they come, or whither they go. When they withdraw from Europe, they all assemble on a particular day, and never leave one of their company behind them. They take their flight in the night, which is the reason the way they go has never been observed. They generally return into Europe in the middle of March, and make their nests on the tops of chimnies and houses, as well as of high trees. The females lay from two to four eggs, of the size and colour of those of geese, and the male and female sit upon them by turns. They are a month in hatching; and when their young are excluded, they are particularly solicitous for their safety.

As the food of these birds consists in a great measure of frogs and serpents, it is not to be wondered at that different nations have paid them a particular veneration. The Dutch are very solicitous for the preservation of the stork in every part of the republic. This bird seems to have taken refuge among their towns, and builds on the tops of their houses

without any molestation. There it is seen resting familiarly in the streets, and protected as well by the laws as the prejudices of the people. They have even got an opinion that it will only live in a republic; and that story of its filial piety, first falsely propagated of the crane, has in part been ascribed to the stork. But it is not in republics alone that the stork is seen to reside, as there are few towns on the continent, in low marshy situations, but have the stork as an inmate among them; as well the despotic princes of Germany, as the little republics of Italy.

The stork seems a general favourite even among the moderns; but with the ancient Egyptians their regard was carried even to adoration. This enlightened people, who worshipped the Deity in his creatures, paid divine honours to the Ibis, as is universally known. It has been usually supposed that the ancient ibis is the same with that which goes at present by the same name; a bird of the stork kind, of about the size of a curlew, all over black, with a bill very thick in the beginning, but ending in a point for the better seizing its prey, which is caterpillars, locusts, and serpents. But however useful the modern ibis may be in ridding Egypt, where it resides, of the vermin and venomous animals that infest it, yet it is much doubted whether this be the same ibis to which the ancients paid their adoration. Maillet, the French consul at Cairo, observes, that it is very hard to determine what bird the ancient ibis certainly was, because there are cranes, storks, hawks, kites, and falcons, that are all equal enemies to serpents, and devour a vast number. He farther adds, that in the month of May, when the winds begin to blow from the internal parts of Africa, there are several sorts of birds that come down from Upper Egypt, from whence they are driven by the rains,



Eng'd by G. H. Miller

1. Belcaric Crane 2. Common Plover 3. Curlew.

in search of a better habitation, and that it is then they do this country such signal services. Nor does the figure of this bird hieroglyphically represented on their pillars, mark it sufficiently to make the distinction. Besides, the modern ibis is not peculiar to Egypt, as it is to be seen but at certain seasons of the year; whereas we are informed by Pliny, that this bird was seen no where else. It is thought, therefore, that the true ibis is a bird of the vulture kind, described above, and called by some the Capon of Pharaoh, which not only is a devourer of serpents, but will follow the caravans that go to Mecca, to feed upon the offal of the animals that are killed on the journey.

CHAPTER IV.

OF THE BALEARIC AND OTHER FOREIGN CRANES.

HAVING ended the last chapter with doubts concerning the ibis, we shall begin this with doubts concerning the Balearic Crane. Pliny has described a bird of the crane kind with a topping resembling that of the green woodpecker. This bird for a long time continued unknown, till we became acquainted with birds of the tropical climates, when one of the crane kind, with a topping, was brought into Europe, and described by Aldrovandus as Pliny's Balearic Crane. Hence these birds, which have since been brought from Africa and the East in numbers, have received the name of Balearic Cranes, but without any just foundation. The real Balearic Crane of Pliny seems to be the lesser ash-coloured heron, with a topping of narrow white feathers, or perhaps the egret, with two long feathers that fall back from

the sides of the head. The bird that we are about to describe under the name of the Balearic Crane was unknown to the ancients; and the heron or egret ought to be reinstated in their just title to that name.

When we see a very extraordinary animal, we are naturally led to suppose, that there must be something also remarkable in its history to correspond with the singularity of its figure. But it often happens that history fails on those occasions where we most desire information. In the present instance, in particular, no bird presents to the eye a more whimsical figure than this, which we must be content to call the Balearic Crane. It is pretty nearly of the shape and size of the ordinary crane, with long legs and a long neck, like others of the kind; but the bill is shorter, and the colour of the feathers of a dark greenish-gray. The head and throat form the most striking part of this bird's figure. On the head is seen standing up a thick round crest made of bristles, spreading every way, and resembling rays standing out in different directions. The longest of these rays are about three inches and a half; and they are all topped with a kind of black tassels, which give them a beautiful appearance. The sides of the head and cheeks are bare, whitish, and edged with red, while underneath the throat hangs a kind of bag or wattle, like that of a cock, but not divided into two. To give this odd composition a higher finishing, the eye is large and staring; the pupil black and big, surrounded with a gold-coloured iris, that completes the bird's very singular appearance.

From such a peculiar figure, we might be led to wish for a minute history of its manners; but of these we can give but slight information. This bird comes from the coast of Africa and the Cape de Verd Islands. As it runs, it stretches out its wings, and goes very swiftly, otherwise its usual motion is very

slow. In their domestic state, they walk very deliberately among other poultry, and suffer themselves to be approached (at least it was so with that I saw) by every spectator. They never roost in houses; but about night, when they are disposed to go to rest, they search out some high wall, on which they perch in the manner of a peacock. Indeed they so much resemble that bird in manners and disposition, that some have described them by the name of the Sea peacock; and Ray has been inclined to rank them in the same family. But, though their voice and roosting be similar, their food, which is entirely upon greens, vegetables, and barley, seems to make some difference.

In this chapter of foreign birds of the crane kind, it will be proper to mention the Jabiru and the Jabiru Guacu, both natives of Brasil.* Of these great birds of the crane kind we know but little, except the general outline of their figure, and the enormous bills which we often see preserved in the cabinets of the curious. The bill of the latter is red, and thirteen inches long; the bill of the former is black, and is found to be eleven. Neither of them, however, are of a size proportioned to their immoderate length of bill. The jabiru guacu is not above the size of a

(* The Jabiru is about the size of a turkey. The bill is long, stout, and of a black colour: the whole plumage is white, except the head, and about two thirds of the neck, which are bare of feathers and of a blackish colour, the remainder is also bare, and of a fine red, on the hind-head are a few grayish feathers, the legs are strong, of a great length, and covered with black scales, wings and tail even at the end. This bird is found in all the savannas of Cayenne, Guiana, and other parts of South America. It is migratory and gregarious. It makes its nest in great trees, which grow on the banks of rivers, lays two eggs, and brings up the young in the nest till they can descend to the ground. The colour of the young birds is gray; the second year it changes to rose-colour and the third to pure white. They are very wild and voracious, and their food is fish, which they devour in great quantities. The flesh of the young birds is said to be good eating, but that of the old is hard and oily.)

common stork, while the jabiru with the smallest bill exceeds the size of a swan. They are both covered with white feathers, except the head and neck, that are naked; and their principal difference is in the size of the body, and the make of the bill, the lower chap of the jabiru guacu being broad and bending upwards.

A bird still more extraordinary may be added to this class, called the Anhima, and, like the two former, a native of Brasil. This is a water fowl of the rapacious kind, and bigger than a swan. The head, which is small for the size of the body, bears a black bill; which is not above two inches long; but what distinguishes it in particular is a horn growing from the forehead as long as the bill, and bending forward like that of the fabulous unicorn of the ancients. This horn is not much thicker than a crow-quill, as round as if it were turned in a lathe, and of an ivory colour. But this is not the only instrument of battle this formidable bird carries; it seems to be armed at all points; for at the fore part of each wing, at the second joint spring two straight triangular spurs, about as thick as one's little finger; the foremost of these goads or spurs is above an inch long, the hinder is shorter, and both of a dusky colour. The claws also are long and sharp; the colour is black and white; and they cry terribly loud, sounding something like *vyhoo vyhoo*. They are never found alone, but always in pairs; the cock and hen prowl together; and their fidelity is said to be such, that when one dies, the other never departs from the carcass, but dies with its companion. It makes its nest of clay, near the bodies of trees, upon the ground, of the shape of an oven.

One bird more may be subjoined to this class, not for the oddity of its figure, but the peculiarity of its manners. It is vulgarly called by our sailors the Buffoon Bird, and by the French the Demoiselle, or



Wattled Heron • Gigantic Crane • Black faced Ibis

Lady. The same qualities have procured it these different appellations from two nations, who, on more occasions than this, look upon the same objects in very different lights. The peculiar gestures and contortions of this bird, the proper name of which is the Numidian Crane, are extremely singular; and the French, who are skilled in the arts of elegant gesticulation, consider all its motions as lady-like and graceful. Our English sailors, however, who have not entered so deeply into the dancing art, think, that while thus in motion the bird cuts but a very ridiculous figure. It stoops, rises, lifts one wing, then another, turns round, sails forward, then back again; all which highly diverts our seamen, not imagining, perhaps, that all these contortions are but the awkward expression, not of the poor animal's pleasures, but its fears.

It is a very scarce bird: the plumage is of a leaden gray; but it is distinguished by fine white feathers, consisting of long fibres, which fall from the back of the head, about four inches long; while the fore-part of the neck is adorned with black feathers, composed of very fine, soft, and long fibres that hang down upon the stomach, and give the bird a very graceful appearance. The ancients have described a buffoon bird, but there are many reasons to believe that theirs is not the Numidian crane. It comes from that country from whence it has taken its name.

CHAPTER V.

OF THE HERON, AND ITS VARIETIES.

BIRDS of the Crane, the Stork, and the Heron kind, bear a very strong affinity to each other; and

their differences are not easily discernible. As for the crane and the stork, they differ rather in their nature and internal conformation than in their external figure; but still they may be known asunder, as well by their colour as by the stork's claws, which are very peculiar, and more resembling a man's nails than the claws of a bird. The Heron may be distinguished from both, as well by its size, which is much less, as by its bill, which in proportion is much longer; but particularly by the middle claw on each foot, which is toothed like a saw, for the better seizing and holding its slippery prey. Should other marks fail, however, there is an anatomical distinction, in which herons differ from all other birds, which is, that they have but one cæcum, and all other birds have two.

Of this tribe, Brisson has enumerated not less than forty-seven sorts, all differing in their size, figure, and plumage; and with talents adapted to their place of residence, or their peculiar pursuits. But, how various soever the heron kind may be in their colours or their bills, they all seem possessed of the same manners, and have but one character, of cowardice and rapacity, indolence, yet insatiable hunger. Other birds are found to grow fat by an abundant supply of food; but these, though excessively destructive and voracious, are ever found to have lean and carrion bodies, as if not even plenty were sufficient for their support.

The common heron is remarkably light, in proportion to its bulk, scarcely weighing three pounds and a half, yet it expands a breadth of wing which is five feet from tip to tip. Its bill is very long, being five inches from the point to the base; its claws are long, sharp, and the middlemost toothed like a saw. Yet, thus armed as it appears for war, it is indolent and cowardly, and even flies at the approach of a

sparrow-hawk. It was once the amusement of the great to pursue this timorous creature with the falcon; and heron hawking was so favourite a diversion among our ancestors, that laws were enacted for the preservation of the species; and the person who destroyed their eggs was liable to a penalty of twenty shillings for each offence.

At present, however, the defects of the ill-judged policy of our ancestors is felt by their posterity; for, as the amusement of hawking has given place to the more useful method of stocking fish-ponds, the heron is now become a most formidable enemy. Of all other birds, this commits the greatest devastation in fresh waters; and there is scarcely a fish, though never so large, that he will not strike at and wound, though unable to carry it away. But the smaller fry are his chief subsistence: these, pursued by their larger fellows of the deep, are obliged to take refuge in shallow waters, where they find the heron a still more formidable enemy. His method is to wade as far as he can go into the water, and there patiently wait the approach of his prey, which when it comes within sight, he darts upon with inevitable aim. In this manner he is found to destroy more in a week than an otter in three months. "I have seen a heron," says Willoughby, "that had been shot, that had seventeen carps in his belly at once, which he will digest in six or seven hours, and then to fishing again. I have seen a carp," continues he, "taken out of a heron's belly, nine inches and a half long. Several gentlemen who kept tame herons, to try what quantity one of them would eat in a day, have put several smaller roach and dace in a tub; and they have found him eat fifty in a day, one day with another. In this manner a single heron will destroy fifteen thousand carp in one half-year.

So great are the digestive powers of this fresh

water tyrant, and so detrimental to those who stock ponds with fish. In general, he is seen taking his gloomy stand by the lake side, as if meditating mischief, motionless and gorged with plunder. His usual attitude on this occasion is to sink his long neck between his shoulders, and keep his head turned on one side, as if eyeing the pool more intently. When the call of hunger returns, the toil of an hour or two is generally sufficient to fill his capacious stomach; and he retires long before night to his retreat in the woods. Early in the morning, however, he is seen assiduous at his usual occupation.

But though in seasons of fine weather the heron can always find a plentiful supply, in cold or stormy seasons his prey is no longer within reach: the fish that before came into the shallow water now keep in the deep, as they find it to be the warmest situation. Frogs and lizards also seldom venture from their lurking-places; and the heron is obliged to support himself upon his long habits of patience, and even to take up with the weeds that grow upon the water. At those times he contracts a consumptive disposition, which succeeding plenty is not able to remove; so that the meagre glutton spends his time between want and riot, and feels alternately the extremes of famine and excess. Hence, notwithstanding the care with which he takes his prey, and the amazing quantity he devours, the heron is always lean and emaciated; and though his crop be usually found full, yet his flesh is scarcely sufficient to cover the bones.

The heron usually takes his prey by wading into the water, yet it must not be supposed that he does not also take it upon the wing. In fact, much of his fishing is performed in this manner; but he never hovers over deep waters, as there his prey is enabled to escape him by sinking to the bottom. In shallow

places he darts with more certainty; for though the fish at sight of its enemy instantly descends, yet the heron, with his long bill and legs, instantly pins it to the bottom, and thus seizes it securely. In this manner, after having been seen with his long neck for above a minute under water, he rises upon the wing, with a trout or an eel struggling in his bill to get free. The greedy bird, however, flies to the shore, scarcely gives it time to expire, but swallows it whole, and then returns to fishing as before.

As this bird does incredible mischief to ponds newly stocked, Willoughby has given a receipt for taking it. "Having found his haunt, get three or four small roach or dace, and having provided a strong hook with a wire to it, this is drawn just within-side the skin of the fish, beginning without-side the gills, and running it to the tail, by which the fish will not be killed, but continue for five or six days alive. Then having a strong line made of silk and wire, about two yards and a half long, it is tied to a stone at one end, the fish with the hook being suffered to swim about at the other. This being properly disposed in shallow water, the heron will seize upon the fish to its own destruction. From this method we may learn that the fish must be alive, otherwise the heron will not touch them; and that this bird, as well as all those that feed upon fish, must be its own caterer; for they will not prey upon such as die naturally, or are killed by others before them."

Though this bird lives chiefly among pools and marshes, yet its nest is built on the tops of the highest trees, and sometimes on cliffs hanging over the sea. They are never in flocks when they fish, committing their depredations in solitude and silence; but in making their nests they love each other's society, and they are seen, like rooks, building in com-

pany with flocks of their kind. Their nests are made of sticks, and lined with wool, and the female lays four large eggs, of a pale green colour. The observable indolence of their nature, however, is not less seen in their nestling than in their habits of depredation. Nothing is more certain, and I have seen it a hundred times, than that they will not be at the trouble of building a nest when they can get one made by the rook, or deserted by the owl, already provided for them. This they usually enlarge and line within, driving off the original possessors, should they happen to renew their fruitless claims.

The French seem to have availed themselves of the indolence of this bird in making its nest, and they actually provide a place with materials fitted for their nestling, which they call *Heronries*. The heron, which with us is totally unfit for the table, is more sought for in France, where the flesh of the young ones is in particular estimation. To obtain this, the natives raise up high sheds along some fishy stream; and furnishing them with materials for the herons to nestle with, these birds build and breed there in great abundance. As soon as the young ones are supposed to be fit, the owner of the heronry comes, as we do into a pigeon-house, and carries off such as are proper for eating; and these are sold for a very good price to the neighbouring gentry. "These are a delicacy which," as my author says, "the French are very fond of, but which strangers have not yet been taught to relish as they ought." Nevertheless it was formerly much esteemed as food in England, and made a favourite dish at great tables. It was then said that the flesh of a heron was a dish for a king; at present, nothing about the house will touch it but a cat.

With us, therefore, as the heron, both old and young, is thought detestable eating, we seldom trou-

ble these animals in their heights, which are for the most part sufficiently inaccessible. Their nests are often found in great numbers in the middle of large forests, and in some groves nearer home, where the owners have a predilection for the bird, and do not choose to drive it from its accustomed habitations. It is certain that by their cries, their expansive wings, their bulk, and wavy motion, they add no small solemnity to the forest, and give a pleasing variety to a finished improvement.

When the young are excluded, as they are numerous, voracious, and importunate, the old ones are for ever upon the wing to provide them with abundance. The quantity of fish they take upon this occasion is amazing, and their size is not less to be wondered at. I remember a heron's nest that was built near a school-house; the boys, with their usual appetite for mischief, climbed up, took down the young ones, sowed up their vents, and laid them in the nest as before. The pain the poor little animals felt from the operation increased their cries; and this but served to increase the diligence of the old ones in enlarging their supply. Thus they heaped the nest with various sorts of fish, and the best of their kind; and as their young screamed, they flew off for more. The boys gathered up the fish, which the young ones were incapable of eating, till the old ones at last quitted their nest, and gave up their brood, whose appetites they found it impossible to satisfy.

The heron is said to be a very long-lived bird; by Mr. Keysler's account, it may exceed sixty years; and by a recent instance of one that was taken in Holland, by a hawk belonging to the Stadtholder, its longevity is again confirmed, the bird having a silver plate fastened to one leg, with an inscription, importing that it had been struck by the elector of Cologne's hawks thirty-five years before.

CHAPTER VI.

OF THE BITTERN OR MIRE-DRUM.

THOSE who have walked in an evening by the sedgy sides of unfrequented rivers, must remember a variety of notes from different water fowl; the loud scream of the wild goose, the croaking of the mallard, the whining of the lapwing, and the tremulous neighing of the jack-snipe. But of all those sounds, there is none so dismally hollow as the booming of the bittern. It is impossible for words to give those who have not heard this evening call an adequate idea of its solemnity. It is like the interrupted bellowing of a bull, but hollower and louder, and is heard at a mile's distance, as if issuing from some formidable being that resided at the bottom of the waters.

The bird, however, that produces this terrifying sound is not so big as a heron, with a weaker bill, and not above four inches long. It differs from the heron chiefly in its colour, which is in general of a palish yellow, spotted and barred with black. Its windpipe is fitted to produce the sound for which it is remarkable; the lower part of it dividing into the lungs, is supplied with a thin loose membrane, that can be filled with a large body of air, and exploded at pleasure. These bellowing explosions are chiefly heard from the beginning of spring to the end of autumn; and however awful they may seem to us, are the calls to courtship, or of connubial felicity.

From the loudness and solemnity of the note, many have been led to suppose that the bird made use of external instruments to produce it, and that so small a body could never eject such a quantity of tone. The common people are of opinion, that it

thrusts its bill into a reed that serves as a pipe for swelling the note above its natural pitch; while others, and in this number we find Thomson the poet, imagine that the bittern puts its head under water, and then violently blowing produces its boomings. The fact is, that the bird is sufficiently provided by nature for this call; and it is often heard where there are neither reeds nor waters to assist its sonorous invitations.

It hides in the sedges by day, and begins its call in the evening, booming six or eight times, and then discontinuing for ten or twenty minutes to renew the same sound. This is a call it never gives but when undisturbed and at liberty. When its retreats among the sedges are invaded, when it dreads or expects the approach of an enemy, it is then perfectly silent. This call it has never been heard to utter when taken or brought up in domestic captivity; it continues under the control of man a mute forlorn bird, equally incapable of attachment or instruction. But, though its boomings are always performed in solitude, it has a scream which is generally heard upon the seizing its prey, and which is sometimes extorted by fear.

This bird, though of the heron kind, is yet neither so destructive nor so voracious. It is a retired, timorous animal, concealing itself in the midst of reeds and marshy places, and living upon frogs, insects, and vegetables; and though so nearly resembling the heron in figure, yet differing much in manners and appetites. As the heron builds on the tops of the highest trees, the bittern lays its nest in a sedgy margin, or amidst a tuft of rushes. The heron builds with sticks and wool; the bittern composes its simpler habitation of sedges, the leaves of water plants, and dry rushes. The heron lays four eggs; the bittern generally seven or eight, of an ash-green

colour. The heron feeds its young for many days; the bittern in three days leads its little ones to their food. In short, the heron is lean and cadaverous, subsisting chiefly upon animal food; the bittern is plump and fleshy, as it feeds upon vegetables when more nourishing food is wanting.

It cannot be, therefore, from its voracious appetites, but its hollow boom, that the bittern is held in such detestation by the vulgar. I remember in the place where I was a boy, with what terror this bird's note affected the whole village; they considered it as the presage of some sad event, and generally found or made one to succeed it. I do not speak ludicrously; but if any person in the neighbourhood died, they supposed it could not be otherwise, for the night raven had foretold it; but if nobody happened to die, the death of a cow or a sheep gave completion to the prophecy.

Whatever terror it may inspire among the simple, its flesh is greatly in esteem among the luxurious. For this reason it is as eagerly sought after by the fowler as it is shunned by the peasant; and as it is a heavy-rising, slow-winged bird, it does not often escape him. Indeed it seldom rises but when almost trod upon; and seems to seek protection rather from concealment than flight. At the latter end of autumn, however, in the evening, its wonted indolence appears to forsake it. It is then seen rising in a spiral ascent till it is quite lost from the view, making at the same time a singular noise very different from its former boomings. Thus the same animal is often seen to assume different desires; and while the Latins have given the bittern the name of the star-reaching bird (or the *stellaris*), the Greeks, taking its character from its more constant habits, have given it the title of the *αἰνός*, or the lazy.

CHAPTER VII.

OF THE SPOONBILL OR SHOVELER.

As we proceed in our description of the crane kind, birds of peculiar forms offer, not entirely like the crane, and yet not so far different as to rank more properly with any other class. Where the long neck and stilt-like legs of the crane are found, they make too striking a resemblance not to admit such birds of the number; and though the bill, or even the toes, should entirely differ, yet the outlines of the figure, and the natural habits and dispositions being the same, these are sufficient to mark their place in the general group of nature.

The Spoonbill is one of those birds which differs a good deal from the crane, yet approaches this class more than any other. The body is more bulky for its height, and the bill is very differently formed from that of any other bird whatever. Yet still it is a comparatively tall bird; it feeds among waters; its toes are divided; and it seems to possess the natural dispositions of the crane. The European spoonbill is of about the bulk of a crane; but as the one is above four feet high, the other is not more than three feet three inches. The common colours of those of Europe is a dirty white; but those of America are of a beautiful rose colour, or a delightful crimson. Beauty of plumage seems to be the prerogative of all the birds of that continent; and we here see the most splendid tints bestowed on a bird, whose figure is sufficient to destroy the effects of its colouring; for its bill is so oddly fashioned, and its eyes so stupidly staring, that its fine feathers only tend to add splendour to deformity. The bill, which in this bird is so very particular, is about seven inches long,

and running out broad at the end, as its name justly serves to denote, it is there about an inch and a half wide. This strangely fashioned instrument in some is black, in others of a light gray, and in those of America it is of a red colour, like the rest of the body. All round the upper chap there runs a kind of rim, with which it covers that beneath; and as for the rest, its cheeks and its throat are without feathers, and covered with a black skin.

A bird so oddly fashioned, might be expected to possess some very peculiar appetites; but the spoon-bill seems to lead a life entirely resembling all those of the crane kind; and nature, when she made the bill of this bird so very broad, seems rather to have sported with its form, than to aim at any final cause for which to adapt it. In fact, it is but a poor philosophy to ascribe every capricious variety in nature to some salutary purpose: in such solutions we only impose upon each other, and often wilfully contradict our own belief. There must be imperfections in every being, as well as capacities of enjoyment. Between both, the animal leads a life of moderate felicity; in part making use of its many natural advantages, and in part necessarily conforming to the imperfection of its figure.

The Shoveler chiefly feeds upon frogs, toads, and serpents; of which, particularly at the Cape of Good Hope, they destroy great numbers. The inhabitants of that country hold them in as much esteem as the ancient Egyptians did their bird ibis: the shoveler runs tamely about their houses; and they are content with its society, as an useful though a homely companion. They are never killed; and indeed they are good for nothing when they are dead, for the flesh is unfit to be eaten.

This bird breeds in Europe, in company with the heron, in high trees, and in a nest formed of the



Red necked Grebe — 2 Puffin
 1. Hoopoe, wood 1. Flamingo 3 Great Auk

same materials. Willoughby tells us, that in a certain grove at a village called Seven Huys, near Leyden, they build and breed yearly in great numbers. In this grove, also, the heron, the bittern, the cormorant, and the shag, have taken up their residence, and annually bring forth their young together. Here the crane kind seem to have formed their general rendezvous; and, as the inhabitants say, every sort of bird has its several quarter, where none but their own tribe are permitted to reside. Of this grove the peasants of the country make good profit. When the young ones are ripe, those that farm the grove, with a hook at the end of a long pole, catch hold of the bough on which the nest is built, and shake out the young ones; but sometimes the nest and all tumble down together.

The shoveler lays from three to five eggs, white, and powdered with a few sanguine or pale spots. We sometimes see in the cabinets of the curious the bills of American shovelers, twice as big and as long as those of the common kind among us, but these birds have not yet made their way into Europe.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE FLAMINGO.

THE Flamingo has the justest right to be placed among cranes; and though it happens to be web-footed, like birds of the goose kind, yet its height, figure, and appetites, entirely remove it from that groveling class of animals. With a longer neck and legs than any other of the crane kind, it seeks its food by wading among waters; and only differs from all of this tribe in the manner of seizing its prey;

for as the heron makes use of its claws, the flamingo uses only its bill, which is strong and thick for the purpose, the claws being useless, as they are feeble, and webbed like those of water fowl.

The flamingo is the most remarkable of all the crane kind, the tallest, bulkiest, and the most beautiful. The body, which is of a beautiful scarlet, is no bigger than that of a swan; but its legs and neck are of such an extraordinary length, that when it stands erect it is six feet six inches high. Its wings extended, are five feet six inches from tip to tip; and it is four feet eight inches from tip to tail. The head is round and small, with a large bill, seven inches long, partly red, partly black, and crooked like a bow. The legs and thighs, which are not much thicker than a man's finger, are about two feet eight inches high, and its neck near three feet long. The feet are not furnished with sharp claws, as in others of the crane kind, but feeble, and united by membranes as in those of the goose. Of what use these membranes are does not appear, as the bird is never seen swimming, its legs and thighs being sufficient for bearing it into those depths where it seeks for prey.

This extraordinary bird is now chiefly found in America, but it was once known on all the coasts of Europe. Its beauty, its size, and the peculiar delicacy of its flesh, have been such temptations to destroy or take it, that it has long since deserted the shores frequented by man, and taken refuge in countries that are as yet but thinly peopled. In those desert regions the flamingos live in a state of society, and under a better polity than any other of the feathered creation.

When the Europeans first came to America, and coasted down along the African shores, they found the flamingos on several shores on either continent,

gentle, and no way distrustful of mankind.* They had long been used to security in the extensive solitudes they had chosen, and knew no enemies, but those they could very well evade or oppose. The Negroes and the native Americans were possessed but of few destructive arts for killing them at a distance, and when the bird perceived the arrow, it well knew how to avoid it. But it was otherwise when the Europeans first came among them: the sailors, not considering that the dread of fire-arms was totally unknown in that part of the world, gave the flamingo the character of a foolish bird, that suffered itself to be approached and shot at. When the fowler had killed one, the rest of the flock, far from attempting to fly, only regarded the fall of their companion in a kind of fixed astonishment: another and another shot was discharged; and thus the fowler often levelled the whole flock, before one of them began to think of escaping.

But at present it is very different in that part of the world; and the flamingo is not only one of the scarcest, but of the shyest birds in the world, and the most difficult of approach. They chiefly keep near the most deserted and inhospitable shores; near salt water lakes and swampy islands. They come down to the banks of rivers by day; and often retire to the inland mountainous parts of the country at the approach of night. When seen by mariners in the day, they always appear drawn up in a long close line of two or three hundred together; and, as Dampier tells us, present, at the distance of half a mile, the exact representation of a long brick wall. Their rank, however, is broken when they seek for food; but they always appoint one of the number as a watch, whose only employment is to observe and give notice of danger, while the rest are feeding. As

* Albin's New History of Birds.

soon as this trusty sentinel perceives the remotest appearance of danger, he gives a loud scream, with a voice as shrill as a trumpet, and instantly the whole cohort are upon the wing. They feed in silence, but upon this occasion all the flock are in one chorus, and fill the air with intolerable screamings.

From this it appears that the flamingos are very difficult to be approached at present, and that they avoid mankind with the most cautious timidity; however, it is not from any antipathy to man that they shun his society, for in some villages, as we are assured by Labat, along the coast of Africa, the flamingos come in great numbers to make their residence among the natives. There they assemble by thousands, perched on the trees within and about the village; and are so very clamorous, that the sound is heard at near a mile's distance. The Negroes are fond of their company, and consider their society as a gift of Heaven, as a protection from accidental evils. The French, who are admitted to this part of the coast, cannot, without some degree of discontent, see such a quantity of game untouched, and rendered useless by the superstition of the natives; they now and then privately shoot some of them, when at a convenient distance from the village, and hide them in the long grass if they perceive any of the Negroes approaching; for they would probably stand a chance of being ill treated, if the blacks discovered their sacred birds thus unmercifully destroyed.

Sometimes, in their wild state, they are shot by mariners; and their young, which run excessively fast, are often taken. Labat has frequently taken them with nets properly extended round the places they breed in. When their long legs are entangled in the meshes, they are then unqualified to make their escape; but they still continue to combat with

their destroyer, and the old ones, though seized by the head, will scratch with their claws; and these, though seemingly inoffensive, very often do mischief. When they are fairly disengaged from the net, they nevertheless preserve their natural ferocity; they refuse all nourishment; they peck and combat with their claws at every opportunity. The fowler is therefore under the necessity of destroying them when taken, as they would only pine and die, if left to themselves in captivity. The flesh of the old ones is black and hard, though Dampier says, well tasted; that of the young ones is still better. But, of all other delicacies, the flamingo's tongue is the most celebrated. A dish of flamingos' tongues, says our author, is a feast for an emperor. In fact, the Roman emperors considered them as the highest luxury; and we have an account of one of them, who procured fifteen hundred flamingos' tongues to be served up in a single dish. The tongue of this bird, which is so much sought after, is a good deal larger than that of any other bird whatever. The bill of the flamingo is like a large black box, of an irregular figure, and filled with a tongue which is black and gristly; but what peculiar flavour it may possess, I leave to be determined by such as understand good eating better than I do. It is probable, that the beauty and scarcity of the bird might be the first inducements to studious gluttony to fix upon its tongue as meat for the table. What Dampier says of the goodness of its flesh cannot be so well relied on, for Dampier was often hungry, and thought any thing good that could be eaten: he avers, indeed, with Labat, that the flesh is black, tough, and fishy; so that we can hardly give him credit when he asserts, that its flesh can be formed into a luxurious entertainment.

These birds, as was said, always go in flocks together, and they move in ranks in the manner of

cranes. They are sometimes seen, at the break of day, flying down in great numbers from the mountains, and conducting each other with a trumpet cry, that sounds like the word *tococo*, from whence the savages of Canada have given them the name. In their flight they appear to great advantage; for they then seem of as bright a red as a burning coal. When they dispose themselves to feed, their cry ceases, and then they disperse over a whole marsh in silence and assiduity. Their manner of feeding is very singular; the bird thrusts down its head, so that the upper convex side of the bill shall only touch the ground; and in this position the animal appears, as it were, standing upon its head. In this manner it paddles and moves the bill about, and seizes whatever fish or insect happens to offer. For this purpose the upper chap is notched at the edges, so as to hold its prey with the greater security. Catesby, however, gives a different account of their feeding. According to him, they thus place the upper chap undermost, and so work about, in order to pick up a seed from the bottom of the water, that resembles millet; but as in picking up this they necessarily also suck in a large quantity of mud, their bill is toothed at the edges, in such a manner as to let out the mud, while they swallow the grain.

Their time of breeding is according to the climate in which they reside: in North America they breed in our summer; on the other side the Line they take the most favourable season of the year. They build their nests in extensive marshes, and where they are in no danger of a surprise. The nest is not less curious than the animal that builds it: it is raised from the surface of the pool about a foot and a half, formed of mud scraped up together, and hardened by the sun, or the heat of the bird's body: it resembles a truncated cone, or one of the pots which we see pla-

ced on chimnies: on the top it is hollowed out to the shape of the bird, and in that cavity the female lays her eggs, without any lining but the well cemented mud that forms the sides of the building. She always lays two eggs, and no more; and, as her legs are immoderately long, she straddles on the nest, while her legs hang down, one on each side, into the water.

The young ones are a long while before they are able to fly; but they run with amazing swiftness. They are sometimes caught; and, very different from the old ones, suffer themselves to be carried home, and are tamed very easily. In five or six days they become familiar, eat out of the hand, and drink a surprising quantity of sea water. But though they are easily rendered domestic, they are not reared without the greatest difficulty; for they generally pine away for want of their natural supplies, and die in a short time. While they are yet young, their colours are very different from those lively tints they acquire with age. In their first year they are covered with plumage of a white colour, mixed with gray; in the second year the whole body is white, with here and there a slight tint of scarlet, and the great covert feathers of the wings are black; the third year the bird acquires all its beauty, the plumage of the whole body is scarlet, except some of the feathers in the wings, that still retain their sable hue. Of these beautiful plumes the savages make various ornaments; and the bird is sometimes skinned by the Europeans to make muffs. But these have diminished in their price, since we have obtained the art of dying feathers of the brightest scarlet.

CHAPTER IX.

OF THE AVOSETTA OR SCOOPER, AND THE CORRIRA OR RUNNER.

THE extraordinary shape of the Avosetta's bill might incline us to wish for its history; and yet in that we are not able to indulge the reader. Natural historians have hitherto, like ambitious monarchs, shown a greater fondness for extending their dominions than cultivating what they possess. While they have been labouring to add new varieties to their catalogues, they have neglected to study the history of animals already known.

The avosetta is chiefly found in Italy, and now and then comes over into England.* It is about the size of a pigeon, is a pretty upright bird, and has extremely long legs for its size. But the most extraordinary part of its figure, and that by which it may be distinguished from all others of the feathered tribe, is the bill, which turns up like a hook, in an opposite direction to that of the hawk or the parrot. This extraordinary bill is black, flat, sharp, and flexible at the end, and about three inches and a half long. From its being bare a long way above the knee, it appears that it lives and wades in the waters. It has a chirping, pert note, as we are told; but with its other habits we are entirely unacquainted. I have

[* This bird is variegated with black and white. It is frequently seen, during the winter, on the eastern shores of Great Britain, and it also frequents the Severn, and the pools of Shropshire. It occasionally visits the coast of Picardy in France, but does not appear to wander farther south in Europe than Italy. These birds feed on worms and insects, which they scoop out of the sand with their bills: but although their feet are webbed, they have never been observed to take the water. They lay two eggs, white, with a greenish hue, about the size of those of the pigeon. Whether from timidity or address, the avo-set shuns snares, and is not easily taken.]



1. Sandpiper 2. Ruff 3. Sandpiper 4. Ysterlacher
(Water Drake)

placed it, from its slender figure, among the cranes, although it is web-footed like the duck. It is one of those birds of whose history we are yet in expectation.

To this bird of the crane kind so little known, I will add another still less known—the Corriira or Runner of Aldrovandus. All we are told of it is, that it has the longest legs of all the web-footed fowls, except the flamingo and avosetta; that the bill is straight, yellow, and black at the ends; that the pupils of the eyes are surrounded with two circles, one of which is bay, and the other white: below, near the belly, it is whitish; the tail, with two white feathers, black at the extremities; and that the upper part of the body is of the colour of rusty iron. It is thus that we are obliged to substitute dry description for instructive history, and employ words to express those shadings of colour which the pencil alone can convey.

CHAPTER X.

OF SMALL BIRDS OF THE CRANE KIND, WITH THE THIGHS PARTLY BARE OF FEATHERS.

As I have taken my distinctions rather from the general form and manners of birds, than from their minuter, though perhaps more precise discriminations, it will not be expected that I should here enter into a particular history of a numerous tribe of birds, whose manners and forms are so very much alike. Of many of them we have scarcely any account in our historians, but tedious descriptions of their dimensions, and the colour of their plumage; and of the rest, the history of one is so much that of all, that it is but the same account repeated to a most disgusting reitera-

tion. I will therefore group them into one general draught; in which the more eminent, or the most whimsical, will naturally stand forward on the canvass.

In this group we find an extensive tribe of native birds, with their varieties and affinities; and we might add a hundred others, of distant climates, of which we know little more than the colour and the name. In this list is exhibited the Curlew, a bird of about the size of a duck, with a bill four inches long: the Woodcock, about the size of a pigeon, with a bill three inches long: the Godwit, of the same size, the bill four inches: the Green Shank, longer legged, the bill two inches and a half: the Red Shank, differing in the colour of its feet from the former: the Snipe, less by half, with a bill three inches. Then with shorter bills—The Ruff, with a collar of feathers round the neck of the male; the Knot, the Sandpiper, the Sanderling, the Dunlin, the Purre, and the Stint. To conclude, with bills very short—the Lapwing, the Green Plover, the Gray Plover, the Dottrel, the Turnstone, and the Sea-lark. These with their affinities, are properly natives or visitants of this country, and are dispersed along our shores, rivers and watery grounds. Taking in the birds of this kind belonging to other countries, the list would be very widely extended; and the whole of this class, as described by Brisson, would amount to near a hundred.

All these birds possess many marks in common, though some have peculiarities that deserve regard. All these birds are bare of feathers above the knee, or above the heel, as some naturalists choose to express it. In fact, that part which I call the knee, if compared with the legs of mankind, is analogous to the heel; but, as it is commonly conceived otherwise, I have conformed to the general apprehension. I

say, therefore, that all these birds are bare of feathers above the knee, and in some they are wanting half-way up the thigh. The nudity in that part is partly natural, and partly produced by all birds of this kind habitually wading in water. The older the bird, the barer are its thighs; yet even the young ones have not the same downy covering reaching so low as the birds of any other class. Such a covering there would rather be prejudicial, as being continually liable to get wet in the water.

As these birds are usually employed rather in running than in flying, and as their food lies entirely upon the ground, and not on trees, or in the air, so they run with great swiftness for their size, and the length of their legs assists their velocity. But as in seeking their food, they are often obliged to change their station, so also are they equally swift of wing, and traverse immense tracts of country without much fatigue.

It has been thought by some that a part of this class lived upon an oily slime, found in the bottoms of ditches and of weedy pools: they were therefore termed by Willoughby, Mud-suckers. But later discoveries have shown, that in these places they hunt for the caterpillars and worms of insects. From hence, therefore we may generally assert, that all birds of this class live upon animals of one kind or another. The long-billed birds suck up worms and insects from the bottom; those furnished with shorter bills pick up such insects as lie nearer the surface of the meadow, or among the sands on the sea-shore.

Thus the curlew, the woodcock, and the snipe, are ever seen in plashy brakes, and under covered hedges, assiduously employed in seeking out insects in their worm state; and it seems, from their fatness, that they find a plentiful supply. Nature, indeed, has furnished them with very convenient instruments

for procuring their food. Their bills are made sufficiently long for searching; but still more, they are endowed with an exquisite sensibility at the point for feeling their provision. They are furnished with no less than three pair of nerves equal almost to the optic nerves in thickness, which pass from the roof of the mouth, and run along the upper chap to the point.

Nor are those birds with shorter bills, and destitute of such convenient instruments, without a proper provision made for their subsistence. The lap-wing, the sand-piper, and the red-shank, run with surprising rapidity along the surface of the marsh, or the sea-shore, quarter their ground with great dexterity, and leave nothing of the insect kind that happens to lie on the surface. These, however, are neither so fat nor so delicate as the former: as they are obliged to toil more for a subsistence, they are easily satisfied with whatever offers; and their flesh often contracts a relish from what has been their latest or their principal food.

Most of the birds formerly described have stated seasons for feeding and rest—the eagle kind prowl by day, and at evening repose; the owl by night, and keeps unseen in the day-time. But these birds of the crane kind seem at all hours employed; they are seldom at rest by day, and during the whole night season every meadow and marsh resounds with their different calls to courtship or to food. This seems to be the time when they least fear interruption from man; and though they fly at all times, yet at this season they appear more assiduously employed, both in providing for their present support, and continuing that of posterity. This is usually the season when the insidious fowler steals in upon their occupations, and fills the whole meadow with terror and destruction.

As all of this kind live entirely in waters, and

among watery places, they seem provided by nature with a warmth of constitution to fit them for that cold element. They reside, by choice, in the coldest climates; and as other birds migrate here in our summer, their migrations hither are mostly in the winter. Even those that reside among us the whole season, retire in summer to the tops of our bleakest mountains, where they breed, and bring down their young when the cold weather sets in.

Most of them, however, migrate, and retire to the polar regions; as those that remain behind in the mountains, and keep with us during summer, bear no proportion to the quantity which in winter haunt our marshes and low grounds. The snipe sometimes builds here, and the nest of the curlew is sometimes found in the plashes of our hills; but the number of these is very small, and it is most probable that they are only some stragglers, who, not having strength or courage sufficient for the general voyage, take up from necessity their habitation here.

In general, during the summer this whole class either choose the coldest countries to retire to, or the coldest and the moistest part of ours to breed in. The curlew, the woodcock, the snipe, the godwit, the gray plover, the green, and the long-legged plover, the knot, and the turnstone, are rather the guests than the natives of this island. They visit us in the beginning of winter, and forsake us in the spring. They then retire to the mountains of Sweden, Poland, Prussia, and Lapland, to breed. Our country, during the summer season, becomes uninhabitable to them. The ground parched up by the heat, the springs dried away, and the vermicular insects already upon the wing, they have no means of subsisting. Their weak and delicately pointed bills are unfit to dig into a resisting soil, and their prey is departed though they were able to reach its retreats.

Thus, that season when nature is said to teem with life, and to put on her gayest liveries, is to them an interval of sterility and famine. The coldest mountains of the north are then a preferable habitation; the marshes there are never totally dried up, and the insects are in such abundance, that, both above ground and underneath, the country swarms with them. In such retreats, therefore, these birds would continue always, but that the frosts, when they set in, have the same effect upon the face of the landscape as the heats of summer. Every brook is stiffened into ice, all the earth is congealed into one solid mass, and the birds are obliged to forsake a region where they can no longer find subsistence.

Such are our visitants. With regard to those which keep with us continually, and breed here, they are neither so delicate in their food, nor perhaps so warm in their constitutions. The lap-wing, the ruff, the red-shank, the sandpiper, the sea-pie, the Norfolk plover, and the sea-lark, breed in this country, and for the most part reside here. In summer they frequent such marshes as are not dried up in any part of the year, the Essex hundreds, and the fens of Lincolnshire. There, in solitudes formed by surrounding marshes, they breed and bring up their young. In winter they come down from their retreats, rendered uninhabitable by the flooding of the waters, and seek their food about our ditches and marshy meadow grounds. Yet even of this class all are wanderers upon some occasions, and take wing to the northern climates to breed and find subsistence. This happens when our summers are peculiarly dry, and when the fenny countries are not sufficiently watered to defend their retreats.

But though this be the usual course of nature with respect to these birds, they often break through the general habits of their kind; and as the lapwing, the

ruff, and the sandpiper, are sometimes seen to alter their manners, and to migrate from hence instead of continuing to breed here, so we often find the woodcock, the snipe, and the curlew, reside with us during the whole season, and breed their young in different parts of the country. In Casewood, about two miles from Tunbridge, as Mr. Pennant assures us, some woodcocks are seen to breed annually. The young have been shot there in the beginning of August, and were as healthy and vigorous as they were with us in winter, though not so well tasted. On the Alps and other high mountains, says Willoughby, the woodcock continues all summer. I myself have flushed them on the top of Mount Jura in June and July. The eggs are long, of a pale red colour, and stained with deeper spots and clouds. The nests of the curlew and the snipe are frequently found; and some of these, perhaps, never entirely leave this island.

It is thus that the same habits are, in some measure, common to all; but in nestling and bringing up their young, one method takes place universally. As they all run and feed upon the ground, so they are all found to nestle there. The number of eggs generally to be seen in every nest, is from two to four; never under, and very seldom exceeding. The nest is made without any art; but the eggs are either laid in some little depression of the earth, or on a few bents and long grass, that scarcely preserve them from the moisture below. Yet such is the heat of the body of these birds, that their time of incubation is shorter than with any others of the same size. The magpie, for instance, takes twenty-one days to hatch its young; the lapwing takes but fourteen. Whether the animal oil, with which these birds abound, gives them this superior warmth, I cannot tell; but there is no doubt of their quick incubation.

In their seasons of courtship they pair as other birds, but not without violent contests between the males for the choice of the female. The lapwing and the plover are often seen to fight among themselves; but there is one little bird of this tribe, called the Ruff, that has got the epithet of *the fighter*, merely from its great perseverance and animosity on these occasions. In the beginning of spring, when these birds arrive among our marshes, they are observed to engage with desperate fury against each other: it is then that the fowlers, seeing them intent on mutual destruction, spread their nets over them, and take them in great numbers. Yet even in captivity their animosity still continues: the people that fat them up for sale are obliged to shut them up in close dark rooms; for if they let ever so little light in among them, the turbulent prisoners instantly fall to fighting with each other, and never cease till each has killed its antagonist, especially, says Willoughby, if any body stands by. A similar animosity, though in a less degree, prompts all this tribe; but when they have paired and begun to lay, their contentions are then over.

The place these birds chiefly choose to breed in is in some island surrounded with sedgy moors, where men seldom resort; and in such situations I have often seen the ground so strewn with eggs and nests, that one could scarcely take a step without treading upon some of them. As soon as a stranger intrudes upon these retreats, the whole colony is up, and a hundred different screams are heard from every quarter. The arts of the lapwing to allure men or dogs from her nest are perfectly amusing. When she perceives the enemy approaching, she never waits till they arrive at her nest, but boldly runs to meet them: when she has come as near them as she dares to venture, she then rises with a loud screaming before them,

seeming as if she was just flushed from hatching, while she is then probably a hundred yards from the nest. Thus she flies, with great clamour and anxiety whining and screaming round the invaders, striking at them with her wings, and fluttering as if she were wounded. To add to the deceit, she appears still more clamorous as more remote from the nest. If she sees them very near, she then seems to be quite unconcerned, and her cries cease, while her terrors are really augmenting. If there be dogs, she flies heavily at a little distance before them, as if maimed; still vociferous and still bold, but never offering to move towards the quarter where her treasure is deposited. The dog pursues in hopes every moment of seizing the parent, and by this means actually loses the young; for the cunning bird, when she has thus drawn him off to a proper distance, then puts forth her powers, and leaves her astonished pursuer to gaze at the rapidity of her flight. The eggs of all these birds are highly valued by the luxurious; they are boiled hard, and thus served up without any further preparation.

As the young of this class are soon hatched, so, when excluded, they quickly arrive at maturity. They run about after the mother as soon as they leave the egg, and being covered with a thick down, want very little of that clutching which all birds of the poultry kind, that follow the mother, indispensably require. They come to their adult state long before winter, and then flock together till the breeding season returns, which for a while dissolves their society.

As the flesh of almost all these birds is in high estimation, so many methods have been contrived for taking them. That used in taking the ruff seems to be most advantageous; and it may not be amiss to describe it. The Ruff, which is the name of the male, the Reeve that of the female, is taken in nets about forty

yards long, and seven or eight feet high. These birds are chiefly found in Lincolnshire and the isle of Ely, where they come about the latter end of April, and disappear about Michaelmas. The male of this bird, which is known from all others of the kind by the great length of the feathers round his neck, is yet so various in his plumage, that it is said no two ruffs were ever seen totally of the same colour. The nets in which these are taken are supported by sticks, at an angle of near forty-five degrees, and placed either on dry ground, or in very shallow water, not remote from reeds: among these the fowler conceals himself, till the birds, enticed by a stale or stuffed bird, come under the nets: he then, by pulling a string, lets them fall, and they are taken; as are godwits, knots, and gray plover, also in the same manner. When these birds are brought from under the net, they are not killed immediately, but fattened for the table with bread and milk, hemp-seed, and sometimes boiled wheat; but if expedition be wanted, sugar is added, which will make them a lump of fat in a fortnight's time. They are kept, as observed before, in a dark room; and judgment is required in taking the proper time for killing them, when they are at the highest pitch of fatness; for if that is neglected, the birds are apt to fall away. They are reckoned a very great delicacy: they sell for two shillings, or half a crown a piece; and are served up to the table with the train, like woodcocks, where we will leave them.

CHAPTER XI.

OF THE WATER-HEN AND THE COOT.

BEFORE we enter upon water fowls, properly so called, two or three birds claim our attention, which

seem to form the shade between the web-footed tribe and those of the crane kind. These partake rather of the form than the habits of the crane; and, though furnished with long legs and necks, rather swim than wade. They cannot properly be called web-footed: nor yet are they entirely destitute of membranes, which fringe their toes on each side, and adapt them for swimming. The birds in question are, the Water Hen and the Bald Coot.

These birds have too near an affinity not to be ranked in the same description. They are shaped entirely alike, their legs are long, and their thighs partly bare; their necks are proportionable, their wings short, their bills short and weak, their colour black, their foreheads bald and without feathers, and their habits are entirely the same. These, however, naturalists have thought proper to range in different classes, from very slight distinctions in their figure. The water-hen weighs but fifteen ounces; the coot twenty-four. The bald part of the forehead in the coot is black; in the water-hen it is of a beautiful pink colour. The toes of the water-hen are edged with a straight membrane; those of the coot have it scalloped and broader.

The differences in the figure are but slight, and those in their manner of living still less. The history of the one will serve for both. As birds of the crane kind are furnished with long wings, and easily change place, the water-hen, whose wings are short, is obliged to reside entirely near those places where her food lies: she cannot take those long journeys that most of the crane kind are seen to perform; compelled by her natural imperfections, as well perhaps as by inclination, she never leaves the side of the pond or the river in which she seeks for provision. Where the stream is selvaged with sedges, or the pond edged with shrubby trees, the water-hen

is generally a resident there: she seeks her food along the grassy banks, and often along the surface of the water. With Shakspeare's Edgar, she drinks the green mantle of the standing pool, or at least seems to prefer those places where it is seen. Whether she makes pond-weed her food, or hunts among it for water-insects, which are found there in great abundance, is not certain. I have seen them when pond-weed was taken out of their stomach. She builds her nest upon low trees and shrubs, of sticks and fibres, by the water side. Her eggs are sharp at one end, white, with a tincture of green spotted with red. She lays twice or thrice in a summer; her young ones swim the moment they leave the egg, pursue their parent, and imitate all her manners. She rears, in this manner, two or three broods in a season; and when the young are grown up, she drives them off to shift for themselves.

As the coot is a larger bird, it is always seen in larger streams, and more remote from mankind. The water-hen seems to prefer inhabited situations: she keeps near ponds, moats, and pools of water near gentlemen's houses; but the coot keeps in rivers, and among rushy margined lakes. It there makes a nest of such weeds as the stream supplies, and lays them among the reeds, floating on the surface, and rising and falling with the water. The reeds among which it is built keep it fast; so that it is seldom washed into the middle of the stream. But if this happens, which is sometimes the case, the bird sits in her nest, like a mariner in his boat, and steers with her legs her cargo into the nearest harbour: there, having attained her port, she continues to sit in great tranquillity, regardless of the impetuosity of the current; and though the water penetrates her nest, she hatches her eggs in that wet condition.

The water-hen never wanders; but the coot some-

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1. Booby 2. Jacana 3. Hooded Grebe
4. Crested Grebe.

times swims down the current, till it even reaches the sea. In this voyage these birds encounter a thousand dangers: as they cannot fly far, they are hunted by dogs and men; as they never leave the stream, they are attacked and destroyed by otters; they are preyed upon by kites and falcons; and they are taken, in still greater numbers, in weirs made for catching fish; for these birds are led into the nets while pursuing small fish and insects, which are their principal food. Thus animated nature affords a picture of universal invasion! Man destroys the otter, the otter destroys the coot, the coot feeds upon fish, and fish are universally the tyrants of each other!

To these birds, with long legs and finny toes, I will add one species more, with short legs and finny toes—I mean the Grebe. The entire resemblance of this bird's appetites and manners to those of the web-footed class, might justly induce me to rank it among them; but as it resembles those above described in the peculiar form of its toes, and bears some similitude in its manners also, I will for once sacrifice method to brevity. The grebe is much larger than either of the former, and its plumage white and black: it differs also entirely in the shortness of its legs, which are made for swimming, and not walking: in fact, they are from the knee upward hid in the belly of the bird, and have consequently very little motion. By this mark, and by the scalloped fringe of the toes, may this bird be easily distinguished from all others.

As they are thus, from the shortness of their wings, ill formed for flying, and from the uncommon shortness of their legs utterly unfitted for walking, they seldom leave the water, and chiefly frequent those broad shallow pools where their faculty of swimming can be turned to the greatest advantage in fishing and seeking their prey.

They are chiefly, in this country, seen to frequent the meres of Shropshire and Cheshire; where they breed among reeds and flags, in a floating nest, kept steady by the weeds of the margin. The female is said to be a careful nurse of its young, being observed to feed them most assiduously with small eels; and when the little brood is tired, the mother will carry them, either on her back or under her wings. This bird preys upon fish, and is almost perpetually diving. It does not show much more than the head above water; and is very difficult to be shot, as it darts down on the appearance of the least danger. It is never seen on land; and, though disturbed ever so often, will not leave that lake, where alone, by diving and swimming, it can find food and security. It is chiefly sought for the skin of its breast, the plumage of which is of a most beautiful silvery white, and as glossy as satin. This part is made into tippets; but the skins are out of season about February, losing their bright colour; and in breeding time their breasts are entirely bare.

PART VI.

OF WATER FOWL.

CHAPTER I.

OF WATER FOWL IN GENERAL.

IN settling the distinctions among the other classes of birds, there was some difficulty; one tribe encroached so nearly upon the nature and habitudes of

another, that it was not easy to draw the line which kept them asunder; but in water fowl nature has marked them for us by a variety of indelible characters; so that it would be almost as unlikely to mistake a land fowl for one adapted for living and swimming among the waters, as a fish for a bird.

The first great distinction in this class appears in the toes, which are webbed together for swimming. Those who have remarked the feet or toes of a duck, will easily conceive how admirably they are formed for making way in the water. When men swim, they do not open the fingers, so as to let the fluid pass through them; but closing them together, present one broad surface to beat back the water, and thus push their bodies along. What man performs by art, nature has supplied to water fowl, and by broad skins has webbed their toes together, so that they expand two broad oars to the water; and thus, moving them alternately, with the greatest ease paddle along. We must observe also, that the toes are so contrived, that, as they strike backward, their broadest hollow surface beats the water; but as they gather them in again for a second blow, their front surface contracts, and does not impede the bird's progressive motion.

As their toes are webbed in the most convenient manner, so are their legs also made most fitly for swift progression in the water. The legs of all are short, except the three birds described in a former chapter; namely, the flamingo, the avosetta, and the corrira; all which, for that reason, I have thought proper to rank among the crane kind, as they make little use of their toes in swimming. Except these, all web-footed birds have very short legs; and these strike while they swim, with great facility. Were the leg long, it would act like a lever whose prop is placed to a disadvantage; its motions would be slow, and the labour of moving it considerable. For this

reason, the very few birds whose webbed feet are long, never make use of them in swimming: the web at the bottom seems only of service as a broad base; to prevent them from sinking while they walk in the mud; but it otherwise rather retards than advances their motion.

The shortness of the legs in the web-footed kinds renders them as unfit for walking on land, as it qualifies them for swimming in their natural element. Their stay, therefore, upon land is but short and transitory; and they seldom venture to breed far from the sides of those waters where they usually remain. In their breeding seasons, their young are brought up by the water side; and they are covered with a warm down, to fit them for the coldness of their situation. The old ones also have a closer, warmer plumage, than birds of any other class. It is of their feathers that our beds are composed, as they neither mat nor imbibe humidity, but are furnished with an animal oil, that glazes their surface, and keeps each separate. In some, however, this animal oil is in too great abundance, and is as offensive from its smell as it is serviceable for the purposes of household economy. The feathers, therefore, of all the penguin kind, are totally useless for domestic purposes, as neither boiling nor bleaching can divest them of their oily rancidity. Indeed the rancidity of all new feathers, of whatever water fowl they be, is so disgusting, that our upholsterers give near double the price for old feathers that they afford for new: to be free from smell, they must all be lain upon for some time; and their usual method is to mix the new and the old together.

The quantity of oil, with which most water fowl are supplied, contributes also to their warmth in the moist element where they reside. Their skin is generally lined with fat; so that, with the warmth of

the feathers externally, and this natural lining more internally, they are better defended against the changes or the inclemencies of the weather than any other class whatever.

As among land birds there are some found fitted entirely for depredation, and others for a harmless method of subsisting upon vegetables, so also among these birds there are tribes of plunderers, that prey not only upon fish, but sometimes upon water fowl themselves. There are likewise more inoffensive tribes, that live upon insects and vegetables only. Some water fowls subsist by making sudden stoops from above, to seize whatever fish comes near the surface; others again, not furnished with wings long enough to fit them for flight, take their prey by diving after it to the bottom.

From hence all water fowl naturally fall into three distinctions. Those of the gull kind, that, with long legs and round bills, fly along the surface to seize their prey: those of the penguin kind, that, with round bills, legs hid in the abdomen, and short wings, dive after their prey; and thirdly, those of the goose kind, with flat broad bills, that lead harmless lives, and chiefly subsist upon insects and vegetables.

These are not speculative distinctions, made up for the arrangement of a system, but they are strongly and evidently marked by nature. The gull kind are active and rapacious, constantly, except when they breed, keeping upon the wing, fitted for a life of rapine, with sharp straight bills for piercing, or hooked at the end for holding their fishy prey. In this class we may rank the Albatross, the Cormorant, the Ganet or Soland Goose, the Shag, the Frigate-bird, the Great Brown Gull, and all the lesser tribe of gulls and sea swallows.

The Penguin kind, with appetites as voracious, bills as sharp, and equally eager for prey, are yet un-

qualified to obtain it by flight. Their wings are short, and their bodies large and heavy, so that they can neither run nor fly. But they are formed for diving in a very peculiar manner. Their feet are placed so far backward, and their legs so hid in the abdomen, that the slightest stroke sends them head foremost to the bottom of the water. To this class we may refer the Penguin, the Auk, the Skout, the Sea-turtle, the Bottle-nose, and the Loon.

The Goose kind are easily distinguishable by their flat broad bills, covered with a skin; and their manner of feeding, which is mostly upon vegetables. In this class we may place the Swan, the Goose, the Duck, the Teal, the Widgeon, and all their numerous varieties.

In describing the birds of these three classes, I will put the most remarkable of each class at the beginning of their respective tribes, and give their separate history; then, after having described the chiefs of the tribe, the more ordinary sorts will naturally fall in a body, and come under a general description behind their leaders. But before I offer to pursue this methodical arrangement, I must give the history of a bird, that, from the singularity of its conformation, seems allied to no species, and should therefore be separately described—I mean the Pelican.

CHAPTER II.

OF THE PELICAN.

THE Pelican of Africa is much larger in the body than a swan, and somewhat of the same shape and colour. Its four toes are all webbed together, and



1. Pintail 2. Hute Swan 3. Pelican.

its neck in some measure resembles that of a swan: but that singularity in which it differs from all other birds is in the bill, and the great pouch underneath, which are wonderful and demand a distinct description. This enormous bill is fifteen inches from the point to the opening of the mouth, which is a good way back behind the eyes. At the base the bill is somewhat greenish, but varies towards the end, being of a reddish-blue. It is very thick in the beginning, but tapers off to the end, where it hooks downwards. The under chap is still more extraordinary; for to the lower edges of it hangs a bag, reaching the whole length of the bill to the neck, which is said to be capable of containing fifteen quarts of water. This bag the bird has a power of wrinkling up into the hollow of the under chap; but by opening the bill, and putting one's hand down into the bag, it may be distended at pleasure. The skin of which it is formed will then be seen of a bluish ash-colour, with many fibres and veins running over its surface. It is not covered with feathers, but a short downy substance as smooth and as soft as satin, and is attached all along the under edges of the chap, to be fixed backward to the neck of the bird by proper ligaments, and reaches near half way down. When this bag is empty it is not seen; but when the bird has fished with success, it is then incredible to what an extent it is often seen dilated. For the first thing the pelican does in fishing is to fill up the bag, and then it returns to digest its burden at leisure. When the bill is opened to its widest extent, a person may run his head into the bird's mouth, and conceal it in this monstrous pouch, thus adapted for very singular purposes. Yet this is nothing to what Ruysch assures us, who avers that a man has been seen to hide his whole leg, boot and all, in the monstrous jaws of one of these animals. At first appearance this would

seem impossible, as the sides of the under chap, from which the bag depends, are not above an inch asunder when the bird's bill is first opened; but then they are capable of great separation; and it must necessarily be so, as the bird preys upon the largest fishes and hides them by dozens in its pouch. *Tertre* affirms that it will hide as many fish as will serve sixty hungry men for a meal. Such is the formation of this extraordinary bird, which is a native of Africa and America. The pelican was once also known in Europe, particularly in Russia; but it seems to have deserted our coasts. This is the bird of which so many fabulous accounts have been propagated; such as its feeding its young with its own blood, and its carrying a provision of water for them in its great reservoir in the desert. But the absurdity of the first account answers itself; and as for the latter, the pelican uses its bag for very different purposes than that of filling it with water.

Its amazing pouch may be considered as analogous to the crop in other birds, with this difference, that as theirs lies at the bottom of the gullet, so this is placed at the top. Thus, as pigeons and other birds macerate their food for their young in their crops, and then supply them, so the pelican supplies its young by a more ready contrivance, and macerates their food in its bill, or stores it for its own particular sustenance.

The ancients were particularly fond of giving this bird admirable qualities and parental affections. Struck, perhaps, with its extraordinary figure, they were willing to supply it with as extraordinary appetites; and having found it with a large reservoir, they were pleased with turning it to the most tender and parental uses. But the truth is the pelican is a very heavy, sluggish, voracious bird, and very ill fitted to take those flights, or to make those cautious

provisions for a distant time, which we have been told it does. Father Labat, who seems to have studied their manners with great exactness, has given us a minute history of this bird, as found in America, and from him I will borrow mine.

The pelican, says Labat, has strong wings, furnished with thick plumage of an ash-colour, as are the rest of the feathers over the whole body. Its eyes are very small, when compared to the size of its head; there is a sadness in its countenance, and its whole air is melancholy; it is as dull and reluctant in its motions as the flamingo is sprightly and active. It is slow of flight; and when it rises to fly, performs it with difficulty and labour. Nothing, as it would seem, but the spur of necessity, could make these birds change their situation, or induce them to ascend into the air; but they must either starve or fly.

They are torpid and inactive to the last degree, so that nothing can exceed their indolence but their gluttony; it is only from the stimulations of hunger that they are excited to labour, for otherwise they would continue always in fixed repose. When they have raised themselves about thirty or forty feet above the surface of the sea, they turn their head with one eye downwards, and continue to fly in that posture. As soon as they perceive a fish sufficiently near the surface, they dart down upon it with the swiftness of an arrow, seize it with unerring certainty, and store it up in their pouch. They then rise again, though not without great labour, and continue hovering and fishing, with their head on one side as before.

This work they continue with great effort and industry till their bag is full, and then they fly to land, to devour and digest at leisure the fruits of their industry. This, however, it would appear they are not long in performing; for towards night they have

other hungry call, and they again reluctantly go to labour. At night, when their fishing is over, and the toil of the day crowned with success, these lazy birds retire a little way from the shore; and, though with the webbed feet and clumsy figure of a goose, they will be contented to perch nowhere but upon trees, among the light and airy tenants of the forest. There they take their repose for the night, and often spend a great part of the day, except such times as they are fishing, sitting in dismal solemnity, and as it would seem half asleep. Their attitude is, with the head resting upon their great bag, and that resting upon their breast. There they remain without motion, or once changing their situation, till the calls of hunger break their repose, and till they find it indispensably necessary to fill their magazine for a fresh meal. Thus their life is spent between sleeping and eating; and our author adds, that they are as foul as they are voracious, as they are every moment voiding excrements in heaps as large as one's fist.

The same indolent habits seem to attend them even in preparing for incubation, and defending their young when excluded. The female makes no preparation for her nest, nor seems to choose any place in preference to lay in, but drops her eggs on the bare ground to the number of five or six, and there continues to hatch them. Attached to the place, without any desire of defending her eggs or her young, she tamely sits and suffers them to be taken from under her. Now and then she just ventures to peck or to cry out when a person offers to beat her off.

She feeds her young with fish macerated for some time in her bag; and when they cry, flies off for a new supply. Labat tells us that he took two of these when very young, and tied them by the leg to a post stuck into the ground, where he had the pleasure of seeing the old one for several days come to feed them,

remaining with them the greatest part of the day, and spending the night on the branch of a tree that hung over them. By these means they were all three become so familiar, that they suffered themselves to be handled; and the young ones very kindly accepted whatever fish he offered them. These they always put first into their bag, and then swallowed at their leisure.

It seems, however, that they are but disagreeable and useless domestics; their gluttony can scarcely be satisfied; their flesh smells very rancid, and tastes a thousand times worse than it smells. The native Americans kill vast numbers, not to eat, for they are not fit even for the banquet of a savage, but to convert their large bags into purses and tobacco pouches. They bestow no small pains in dressing the skin with salt and ashes, rubbing it well with oil, and then forming it to their purpose. It thus becomes so soft and pliant that the Spanish women sometimes adorn it with gold and embroidery to make work-bags of.

Yet, with all the seeming hebetude of this bird, it is not entirely incapable of instruction in a domestic state. Father Raymond assures us, that he has seen one so tame and well educated among the native Americans, that it would go off in the morning at the word of command, and return before night to its master, with its great pouch distended with plunder; a part of which the savages would make it disgorge, and a part they would permit it to reserve for itself.

“The pelican,” as Faber relates, “is not destitute of other qualifications. One of those which was brought alive to the Duke of Bavaria’s court, where it lived forty years, seemed to be possessed of very uncommon sensations. It was much delighted in the company and conversation of men, and in music both vocal and instrumental; for it would willingly stand,”

says he, "by those that sung or sounded the trumpet; and stretching out its head, and turning its ear to the music, listened very attentively to its harmony, though its own voice was little pleasanter than the braying of an ass." Gesner tells us, that the Emperor Maximilian had a tame pelican which lived for above eighty years, and that always attended his army on their march. It was one of the largest of the kind, and had a daily allowance by the emperor's orders. As another proof of the great age to which the pelican lives, Aldrovandus makes mention of one of these birds that was kept several years at Mechlin, and was verily believed to be fifty years old.—We often see these birds at our shows about town.

CHAPTER III.

OF THE ALBATROSS, THE FIRST OF THE GULL KIND.

THOUGH this is one of the largest and most formidable birds of Africa and America, yet we have but few accounts to enlighten us in its history. The figure of the bird is thus described by Edwards: "The body is rather larger than that of the pelican; and its wings, when extended, ten feet from tip to tip. The bill, which is six inches long, is yellowish, and terminates in a crooked point. The top of the head is of a bright brown; the back is of a dirty deep spotted brown; and the belly and under the wing is white; the toes, which are webbed, are of a flesh colour."

Such are the principal traits in this bird's figure; but these lead us a very short way in its history, and our naturalists have thought fit to say nothing more. However, I am apt to believe this bird to be the same

with that described by Wicquefort, under the title of the Alcatraz; its size, its colours, and its prey, incline me to think so. He describes it as a kind of great gull, as large in the body as a goose, of a brown colour, with a long bill, and living upon fish, of which they kill great numbers.

This bird is an inhabitant of the tropical climates, and also beyond them as far as the Straits of Magellan in the South Seas. It is one of the most fierce and formidable of the aquatic tribe, not only living upon fish, but also such small water fowl as it can take by surprise. It preys, as all the gull kind do, upon the wing; and chiefly pursues the flying-fish, that are forced from the sea by the dolphins. The ocean in that part of the world presents a very different appearance from the seas with which we are surrounded. In our seas we see nothing but a dreary expanse, ruffled by winds, and seemingly forsaken by every class of animated nature. But the tropical seas, and the distant south latitudes beyond them, are all alive with birds and fishes, pursuing and pursued. Every various species of the gull kind are there seen hovering on the wing, at a thousand miles distance from the shore. The flying-fish are every moment rising to escape from their pursuers of the deep, only to encounter equal dangers in the air. Just as they rise, the dolphin is seen to dart after them, but generally in vain; the gull has more frequent success, and often takes them at their rise; while the albatross pursues the gull, and obliges it to relinquish its prey:—so that the whole horizon presents but one living picture of rapacity and evasion.

So much is certain; but how far we are to credit Wicquefort in what he adds concerning this bird, the reader is left to determine. “As these birds, except when they breed, live entirely remote from land, so they are often seen, as it should seem, sleeping in

the air. At night, when they are pressed by slumber, they rise into the clouds as high as they can; there, putting their head under one wing, they beat the air with the other, and seem to take their ease. After a time, however, the weight of their bodies, only thus half supported, brings them down, and they are seen descending, with a pretty rapid motion, to the surface of the sea. Upon this they again put forth their efforts to rise; and thus alternately ascend and descend at their ease. But it sometimes happens," says my author, "that in these slumbring flights, they are off their guard, and fall upon deck, where they are taken."

What truth there may be in this account I will not take it upon me to determine; but certain it is, that few birds float upon the air with more ease than the albatross, or support themselves a longer time in that element. They seem never to feel the accesses of fatigue; but, night and day upon the wing, are always prowling, yet always emaciated and hungry.

But though this bird be one of the most formidable tyrants of the deep, there are some unions which even tyrants themselves form, to which they are induced either by caprice or necessity. The albatross seems to have a peculiar affection for the penguin, and a pleasure in its society. They are always seen to choose the same places for breeding—some distant, uninhabited island, where the ground slants to the sea, as the penguin is not formed either for flying or climbing. In such places their nests are seen together, as if they stood in need of mutual assistance and protection. Captain Hunt, who for some time commanded at our settlement upon Falkland Islands, assures me, that he was often amazed at the union preserved between these birds, and the regularity with which they built together. In that bleak and desolate spot, where the birds had long continu-

ed undisturbed possessors, and no way dreaded the encroachment of men, they seemed to make their abode as comfortable as they expected it to be lasting. They were seen to build with an amazing degree of uniformity, their nests covering fields by thousands, and resembling a regular plantation. In the middle, on high, the albatross raised its nest, on heath, sticks, and long grass, about two feet above the surface; round this the penguins made their lower settlements, rather in holes in the ground, and most usually eight penguins to one albatross. Nothing is a stronger proof of M. Buffon's fine observation, that the presence of man not only destroys the society of meaner animals, but their instincts also. These nests are now, I am told, totally destroyed; the society is broke up; and the albatross and penguin have gone to breed upon more desert shores, in greater security.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CORMORANT.

THE Cormorant is about the size of a large Muscovy duck, and may be distinguished from all other birds of this kind, by its four toes being united by membranes together, and by the middle toe being toothed or notched, like a saw, to assist it in holding its fishy prey. The head and neck of this bird are of a sooty blackness; and the body thick and heavy, more inclining in figure to that of the goose than the gull. The bill is straight till near the end, where the upper chap bends into a hook.

But notwithstanding the seeming heaviness of its make, there are few birds more powerfully preda-

ceous. As soon as the winter approaches, they are seen dispersed along the sea-shore, and ascending up the mouths of fresh water rivers, carrying destruction to all the finny tribe. They are most remarkably voracious, and have a most sudden digestion. Their appetite is for ever craving, and never satisfied. This gnawing sensation may probably be increased by the great quantity of small worms that fill their intestines, and which their unceasing gluttony contributes to engender.

Thus formed with grossest appetites, this unclean bird has the most rank and disagreeable smell, and is more fetid than even carrion, when in its most healthful state. Its form, says an ingenious modern, is disagreeable; its voice is hoarse and croaking; and all its qualities obscene. No wonder then that Milton should make Satan personate this bird, when he sent him upon the basest purposes, to survey with pain the beauties of Paradise, and to sit devising death on the tree of life.* It has been remarked, however, of our poet, that the making a water fowl perch upon a tree, implied no great acquaintance with the history of nature. In vindication of Milton, Aristotle expressly says, that the cormorant is the only water fowl that sits on trees. We have already seen the pelican of this number; and the cormorant's toes seem as fit for perching upon trees as for swimming; so that our epic bard seems to have been as deeply versed in natural history as in criticism.

Indeed, this bird seems to be of a multiform nature, and wherever fish are to be found, watches their migrations. It is seen as well by land as sea; it fishes in fresh water lakes, as well as in the depths of the ocean; it builds in the cliffs of rocks, as well as on trees; and preys not only in the day-time, but by night.

* *Vide Pennant's Zoology, p. 477.*

Its indefatigable nature, and its great power in catching fish, were probably the motives that induced some nations to breed this bird up tame, for the purposes of fishing; and Willoughby assures us it was once used in England for that purpose. The description of their manner of fishing is thus delivered by Faber: "When they carry them out of the rooms where they are kept to the fish-pools, they hoodwink them, that they may not be frightened by the way. When they are come to the rivers, they take off their hoods; and having tied a leather thong round the lower part of their necks, that they may not swallow down the fish they catch, they throw them into the river. They presently dive under water, and there, for a long time, with wonderful swiftness, pursue the fish; and when they have caught them, rise to the top of the water, and pressing the fish lightly with their bills, swallow them, till each bird hath, after this manner, devoured five or six fishes. Then their keepers call them to the fist, to which they readily fly; and, one after another, vomit up all their fish, a little bruised with the first nip given in catching them. When they have done fishing, setting the birds on some high place, they loose the string from their necks, leaving the passage to the stomach free and open; and, for their reward, they throw them part of their prey; to each, one or two fishes, which they will catch most dexterously as they are falling in the air."

At present, the cormorant is trained up in every part of China for the same purpose, where there are many lakes and canals. "To this end," says Le Compte, "they are educated as men rear up spaniels or hawks; and one man can easily manage a hundred. The fisher carries them out into the lake, perched on the gunnel of his boat, where they continue tranquil, and expecting his orders with pa-

tience. When arrived at the proper place, at the first signal given each flies a different way, to fulfil the task assigned it. It is very pleasant, on this occasion, to behold with what sagacity they portion out the lake or the canal where they are upon duty. They hunt about, they plunge, they rise a hundred times to the surface, until they have at last found their prey. They then seize it with their beak by the middle, and carry it without fail to their master. When the fish is too large, they then give each other mutual assistance; one seizes it by the head, the other by the tail, and in this manner carry it to the boat together. There the boatman stretches out one of his long oars, on which they perch, and being delivered of their burden, they fly off to pursue their sport. When they are wearied, he lets them rest for a while; but they are never fed till their work is over. In this manner they supply a very plentiful table; but still their natural gluttony cannot be reclaimed even by education. They have always, while they fish, the same string fastened round their throats, to prevent them from devouring their prey, as otherwise they would at once satiate themselves, and discontinue their pursuit the moment they had filled their bellies."

As for the rest, the cormorant is the best fisher of all birds; and though fat and heavy with the quantity it devours, is nevertheless generally upon the wing. The great activity with which it pursues, and from a vast height drops down to dive after its prey, offers one of the most amusing spectacles to those who stand upon a cliff on the shore. This large bird is seldom seen in the air, but where there are fish below; but then they must be near the surface before it will venture to souse upon them. If they are at a depth beyond what the impetus of its flight makes the cormorant capable of diving to, they certainly escape

him; for this bird cannot move so fast under water, as the fish can swim. It seldom, however, makes an unsuccessful dip, and is often seen rising heavily, with a fish larger than it can readily devour. It sometimes also happens, that the cormorant has caught the fish by the tail, and consequently the fins prevent its being easily swallowed in that position. In this case, the bird is seen to toss its prey above its head, and very dexterously to catch it, when descending, by the proper end, and so swallow it with ease.

CHAPTER V.

OF THE GANNET, OR SOLAND GOOSE.

THE Gannet is of the size of a tame goose, but its wings much longer, being six feet over. The bill is six inches long, straight almost to the point, where it inclines down, and the sides are irregularly jagged, that it may hold its prey with greater security. It differs from the cormorant in size, being larger; and its colour, which is chiefly white; and by its having no nostrils, but in their place a long furrow, that reaches almost to the end of the bill. From the corner of the mouth is a narrow slip of black bare skin, that extends to the hind part of the head; beneath the skin is another, that like the pouch of the pelican, is dilatable, and of size sufficient to contain five or six entire herrings, which in the breeding season it carries at once to its mate or its young.

These birds, which subsist entirely upon fish, chiefly resort to those uninhabited islands where their food is found in plenty, and men seldom come to disturb them. The islands to the north of Scotland, the

Skelig Islands off the coasts of Kerry in Ireland, and those that lie in the North Sea off Norway, abound with them. But it is on the Bass Island, in the Firth of Edinburgh, where they are seen in the greatest abundance. "There is a small island," says the celebrated Harvey, "called the Bass, not more than a mile in circumference. The surface is almost wholly covered during the months of May and June with their nests, their eggs, and young. It is scarcely possible to walk without treading on them: the flocks of birds upon the wing are so numerous as to darken the air like a cloud; and their noise is such, that one cannot, without difficulty, be heard by the person next to him. When one looks down upon the sea from the precipice, its whole surface seems covered with infinite numbers of birds of different kinds, swimming and pursuing their prey. If, in sailing round the island, one surveys its hanging cliffs, in every crag or fissure of the broken rocks may be seen innumerable birds, of various sorts and sizes, more than the stars of heaven when viewed in a serene night. If they are viewed at a distance, either receding, or in their approach to the island, they seem like one vast swarm of bees."

They are not less frequent upon the rocks of St. Kilda. Martin assures us, that the inhabitants of that small island consume annually near twenty-three thousand young birds of this species, beside an amazing quantity of their eggs. On these they principally subsist throughout the year; and, from the number of these visitants, make an estimate of their plenty for the season. They preserve both the eggs and fowls in small pyramidal stone buildings, covering them with turf ashes, to prevent the evaporation of their moisture.

The gannet is a bird of passage. In winter, it seeks the more southern coasts of Cornwall, hover-



1. Phaq - 2 Cormorant - 3. Frigate - Pelican

ing over the shoals of herrings and pilchards that then come down from the northern seas. Its first appearance in the northern islands is in the beginning of spring; and it continues to breed till the end of summer. But, in general, its motions are determined by the migrations of the immense shoals of herrings that come pouring down at that season through the British Channel, and supply all Europe, as well as this bird, with their spoil. The gannet assiduously attends the shoal in their passage, keeps with them in their whole circuit round our island, and shares with our fishermen this exhaustless banquet. As it is strong of wing, it never comes near the land, but is constant to its prey. Wherever the gannet is seen, it is sure to announce to the fishermen the arrival of the finny tribe: they then prepare their nets, and take the herrings by millions at a draught; while the gannet, who came to give the first information, comes, though an unbidden guest, and often snatches its prey from the fisherman even in his boat. While the fishing season continues, the gannets are busily employed; but when the pilchards disappear from our coasts, the gannet takes its leave, to keep them company.

The cormorant has been remarked for the quickness of his sight; yet in this the gannet seems to exceed him. It is possessed of a transparent membrane under the eye-lid, with which it covers the whole eye at pleasure, without obscuring the sight in the smallest degree. This seems a necessary provision for the security of the eyes of so weighty a creature, whose method of taking prey, like that of the cormorant, is by darting headlong down from a height of a hundred feet and more into the water to seize it. These birds are sometimes taken at sea, by fastening a pilchard to a board, which they leave floating. The gannet instantly pounces down from above

upon the board, and is killed or maimed by the shock of a body where it expected no resistance.

These birds breed but once a-year, and lay but one egg, which being taken away, they lay another; if that is also taken, then a third, but never more for that season. Their egg is white, and rather less than that of the common goose; and their nest large, composed of such substances as are found floating on the surface of the sea. The young birds, during the first year, differ greatly in colour from the old ones; being of a dusky hue, speckled with numerous triangular white spots, and at that time resembling the colours of the speckled diver.

The Bass Island, where they chiefly breed, belongs to one proprietor; so that care is taken never to fright away the birds when laying, or to shoot them upon the wing. By that means, they are so confident as to alight and feed their young ones close beside you. They feed only upon fish, as was observed; yet the young gannet is counted a great dainty by the Scots, and sold very dear; so that the lord of the islet makes a considerable annual profit by the sale.

CHAPTER VI.

OF SMALLER GULLS AND PETRELS.

HAVING described the manners of the great ones of this tribe, those of the smaller kinds may be easily inferred. They resemble the more powerful in their appetites for prey, but have not such certain methods of obtaining it. In general, therefore, the industry of this tribe and their audacity increase in proportion to their imbecility: the great gulls live at



Engd. in G. B. Blue

1. Stormy Petrel 2. Kittiwake Gull
3. Common Gull 4. Plover Gull

100

100

100

100

100

100

100

100

100

100

100

100

the most remote distance from man; the smaller are obliged to reside wherever they can take their prey, and to come into the most populous places when solitude can no longer grant them a supply. In this class we may place the Gull, properly so called, of which there are above twenty different kinds; the Petrel, of which there are three; and the Sea Swallow, of which there are as many. The gulls may be distinguished by an angular knob on the lower chap; the petrels by their wanting this knob; and the sea swallows by their bills, which are straight, slender, and sharp pointed. They all, however, agree in their appetites, and their places of abode.

The gull and all its varieties, is very well known in every part of the kingdom. It is seen with a slow sailing flight hovering over rivers to prey upon the smaller kinds of fish; it is seen following the ploughman in fallow fields to pick up insects; and when living animal food does not offer, it has even been known to eat carrion, and whatever else of the kind that offers. Gulls are found in great plenty in every place; but it is chiefly round our boldest rockiest shores that they are seen in the greatest abundance;—it is there that the gull breeds and brings up its young; it is there that millions of them are heard screaming with discordant notes for months together.

Those who have been much upon our coasts, know that there are two different kinds of shores—that which slants down to the water with a gentle declivity, and that which rises with a precipitate boldness, that seems set as a bulwark to repel the force of the invading deeps. It is to such shores as these that the whole tribe of the gull kind resort, as the rocks offer them a retreat for their young, and the sea a sufficient supply. It is in the cavities of these rocks, of which the shore is composed, that the vast variety of sea fowls retire to breed in safety.

The waves beneath, that continually beat at the base, often wear the shore into an impending boldness, so that it seems to jut out over the water, while the raging of the sea makes the place inaccessible from below. These are the situations to which sea fowl chiefly resort, and bring up their young in undisturbed security.

Those who have never observed our boldest coasts, have no idea of their tremendous sublimity. The boasted works of art, the highest towers, and the noblest domes, are but ant-hills when put in comparison; the single cavity of a rock often exhibits a coping higher than the ceiling of a gothic cathedral. The face of the shore offers to the view a wall of massive stone ten times higher than our tallest steeples. What should we think of a precipice three quarters of a mile in height? and yet the rocks of St. Kilda are still higher! What must be our awe to approach the edge of that impending height, and to look down on the unfathomable vacuity below! to ponder on the terrors of falling to the bottom, where the waves that swell like mountains are scarcely seen to curl on the surface, and the roar of an ocean a thousand leagues broad appears softer than the murmur of a brook! It is in these formidable mansions that myriads of sea fowls are for ever seen sporting, flying in security down the depth, half a mile beneath the feet of the spectator. The crow and the chough avoid those frightful precipices; they choose smaller heights, where they are less exposed to the tempest: it is the cormorant, the gannet, the tarrock, and the terne, that venture to these dreadful retreats, and claim an undisturbed possession. To the spectator from above, those birds, though some of them are above the size of an eagle, seem scarcely as large as a swallow; and their loudest screaming is scarcely perceptible.

But the generality of our shores are not so formidable. Though they may rise two hundred fathoms above the surface, yet it often happens that the water forsakes the shore at the departure of the tide, and leaves a noble and delightful walk for curiosity on the beach. Not to mention the variety of shells with which the sand is strewed, the lofty rocks that hang over the spectator's head, and that seem but just kept from falling, produce in him no unpleasing gloom. If to this be added the fluttering, the screaming, and the pursuits of myriads of water birds, all either intent on the duties of incubation, or roused at the presence of a stranger, nothing can compose a scene of more peculiar solemnity. To walk along the shore when the tide is departed, or to sit in the hollow of a rock when it is come in, attentive to the various sounds that gather on every side, above and below, may raise the mind to its highest and noblest exertions. The solemn roar of the waves swelling into and subsiding from the vast caverns beneath, the piercing note of the gull, the frequent chatter of the guillemot, the loud note of the auk, the scream of the heron, and the hoarse deep periodical croaking of the cormorant, all unite to furnish out the grandeur of the scene, and turn the mind to Him who is the essence of all sublimity.

Yet it often happens that the contemplation of a sea-shore produces ideas of a humbler kind, yet still not unpleasing. The various arts of these birds to seize their prey, and sometimes to elude their pursuers, their society among each other, and their tenderness and care of their young, produce gentler sensations. It is ridiculous also now and then to see their various ways of imposing upon each other. It is common enough, for instance, with the arctic gull, to pursue the lesser gulls so long, that they drop their excrements through fear, which the hun-

gry hunter quickly gobbles up before it ever reaches the water. In breeding too they have frequent contests: one bird, who has no nest of her own, attempts to dispossess another, and put herself in the place. This often happens among all the gull kind; and I have seen the poor bird, thus displaced by her more powerful invader, sit near the nest in pensive discontent, while the other seemed quite comfortable in her new habitation. Yet this place of pre-eminence is not easily obtained; for the instant the invader goes to snatch a momentary sustenance, the other enters upon her own, and always ventures another battle before she relinquishes the justness of her claim. The contemplation of a cliff thus covered with hatching birds, affords a very agreeable entertainment; and as they sit upon the ledges of the rocks, one above another, with their white breasts forward, the whole group has not unaptly been compared to an apothecary's shop.

These birds, like all others of the rapacious kind, lay but few eggs: and hence, in many places, their number is daily seen to diminish. The lessening of so many rapacious birds may at first sight appear a benefit to mankind; but when we consider how many of the natives of our islands are sustained by their flesh, either fresh or salted, we shall find no satisfaction in thinking that these poor people may in time lose their chief support. The gull, in general, as was said, builds on the ledges of rocks, and lays from one egg to three, in a nest formed of long grass and sea-weed. Most of the kind are fishy tasted, with black, stringy flesh; yet the young ones are better food; and of these, with several other birds of the penguin kind, the poor inhabitants of our northern islands make their wretched banquets. They have been long used to no other food; and even salted gull can be relished by those who know no better.

Almost all delicacy is a relative thing; and the man who repines at the luxuries of a well-served table, starves not for want, but from comparison. The luxuries of the poor are indeed coarse to us, yet still they are luxuries to those ignorant of better; and it is probable enough that a Kilda or a Feroe man may be found to exist, outdoing Apicius himself in consulting the pleasures of the table. Indeed, if it be true that such meat as is the most dangerously earned is the sweetest, no man can dine so luxuriously as these, as none venture so hardily in the pursuit of a dinner. In Jacobson's History of the Feroe Islands, we have an account of the method in which those birds are taken; and I will deliver it in his own simple manner.

“It cannot be expressed with what pains and danger they take these birds in those high steep cliffs, whereof many are two hundred fathoms high. But there are men apt by nature, and fit for the work, who take them usually in two manners; they either climb from below into these high promontories, that are as steep as a wall, or they let themselves down with a rope from above. When they climb from below, they have a pole five or six ells long, with an iron hook at the end, which they that are below in the boat, or on the cliff, fasten to the man's girdle, helping him up thus to the highest place where he can get footing; afterwards they also help up another man; and thus several climb up as high as possibly they can; and where they find difficulty, they help each other up, by thrusting one another up with their poles. When the first hath taken footing, he draws the other up to him by the rope fastened to his waist; and so they proceed till they come to the place where the birds build, they there go about as well as they can, in those dangerous places; the one holding the rope at one end and fixing himself to the rock, the

other going at the other end from place to place. If it should happen that he chanceth to fall the other that stands firm keeps him up, and helps him up again. But if he passeth safe, he likewise fastens himself till the other has passed the same dangerous place also. Thus they go about the cliffs after birds as they please. It often happeneth, however the more is the pity, that when one doth not stand fast enough, or is not sufficiently strong to hold up the other in his fall, that they both fall down and are killed. In this manner some do perish every year."

Mr. Peter Clanson, in his description of Norway, writeth, that there was anciently a law in that country, that whosoever climbed so on the cliffs that he fell down and died, if the body was found before burial his next kinsman should go the same way; but if he durst not, or could not do it, the dead body was not then to be buried in sanctified earth, as the person was too full of temerity, and his own destroyer.

"When the fowlers are come, in the manner aforesaid, to the birds within the cliffs, where people seldom come, the birds are so tame that they take them with their hands; for they will not readily leave their young. But when they are wild, they cast a net, with which they are provided, over them, and entangle them therein. In the mean time, there lieth a boat beneath in the sea, wherein they cast the birds killed; and in this manner they can, in a short time, fill a boat with fowl. When it is pretty fair weather, and there is good fowling, the fowlers stay in the cliffs seven or eight days together; for there are here and there holes in the rocks, where they can safely rest, and they have meat let down to them with a line from the top of the mountain. In the mean time some go every day to them, to fetch home what they have taken.

"Some rocks are so difficult that they can in no

manner get unto them from below; wherefore they seek to come down thereunto from above. For this purpose they have a rope, eighty or a hundred fathoms long, made of hemp, and three fingers thick. The fowler maketh the end of this fast about his waist, and between his legs, so that he can sit thereon: and is thus let down, with the fowling-staff in his hand. Six men hold by the rope, and let him easily down, laying a large piece of wood on the brink of the rock, upon which the rope glideth, that it may not be worn to pieces by the hard and rough edge of the stone. They have, besides, another small line, that is fastened to the fowler's body; on which he pulleth, to give them notice how they should let down the great rope, either lower or higher; or to hold still, that he may stay in the place whereunto he is come. Here the man is in great danger, because of the stones that are loosened from the cliff by the swinging of the rope, and he cannot avoid them. To remedy this in some measure, he hath usually on his head a seaman's thick and shaggy cap, which defends him from the blows of the stones if they be not too big, and then it costeth him his life; nevertheless, they continually put themselves in that danger, for the wretched body's food sake, hoping in God's mercy and protection, unto which the greatest part of them do devoutly recommend themselves when they go to work: otherwise, they say, there is no other great danger in it except that it is a toilsome and artificial labour; for he that hath not learned to be so let down, and is not used thereto, is turned about with the rope, so that he soon groweth giddy, and can do nothing; but he that hath learned the art, considers it as a sport, swings himself on the rope, sets his feet against the rock, casts himself some fathoms from thence, and shoots himself to what place

he will: he knows where the birds are, he understands how to sit on the line in the air and how to hold the fowling-staff in his hand, striking therewith the birds that come or fly away; and when there are holes in the rocks, and it stretches itself out, making underneath as a ceiling, under which the birds are, he knoweth how to shoot himself in among them, and there take firm footing. There, when he is in these holes, he maketh himself loose of the rope, which he fastens to a crag of the rock, that it may not slip from him to the outside of the cliff. He then goes about in the rock, taking the fowl, either with his hands or the fowling-staff. Thus, when he hath killed as many birds as he thinks fit, he ties them in a bundle, and fastens them to a little rope, giving a sign, by pulling, that they should draw them up. When he has wrought thus the whole day, and desires to get up again, he sitteth once more upon the great rope, giving a new sign that they should pull him up, or else he worketh himself up, climbing along the rope; with his girdle full of birds. It is also usual, where there are not folks enough to hold the great rope, for the fowler to drive a post sloping into the earth, and to make a rope fast thereto, by which he lets himself down without any body's help, to work in the manner aforesaid. Some rocks are so formed that the person can go into their cavities by land.

“These manners are more terrible and dangerous to see than to describe; especially if one considers the steepness and height of the rocks, it seeming impossible for a man to approach them, much less to climb or descend. In some places the fowlers are seen climbing where they can only fasten the ends of their toes and fingers, not shunning such places, though there be a hundred fathom between them and the sea. It is a dear meat for these poor people, for

which they must venture their lives; and many, after long venture, do at last perish therein.

“ When the fowl is brought home, a part thereof is eaten fresh; another part, when there is much taken, being hung up for winter provision. The feathers are gathered to make merchandise of, for other expenses. The inhabitants get a great many of these fowls, as God giveth his blessing and fit weather. When it is dark and hazy, they take most, for then the birds stay in the rocks; but in clear weather, and hot sun-shine, they seek the sea. When they prepare to depart for the season, they keep themselves most there, sitting on the cliffs towards the sea-side, where people get at them sometimes with boats, and take them with fowling-staves.”

Such is the account of this historian; but we are not to suppose that all the birds caught in this manner are of the gull kind: on the contrary, numbers of them are of the penguin kind; auks, puffins and guillemots. These all come, once a season, to breed in these recesses; and retire in winter to fish in more southern climates.

CHAPTER VII.

OF THE PENGUIN KIND; AND FIRST OF THE GREAT MAGELLANIC PENGUIN.

THE gulls are long winged swift flyers, that hover over the most extensive seas, and dart down upon such fish as approach too near the surface. The penguin kind are but ill fitted for flight, and still less for walking. Every body must have seen the awkward manner in which a duck, either wild or tame, attempts to change place; they must recollect with

what softness and ease a gull or a kite waves its pinions, and with what a coil and flutter the duck attempts to move them; how many strokes it is obliged to give, in order to gather a little air; and even when it is thus raised, how soon it is fatigued with the force of its exertions, and obliged to take rest again. But the duck is not, in its natural state, half so unwieldy an animal as the whole tribe of the penguin kind. Their wings are much shorter, more scantily furnished with quills, and the whole pinion placed too forward to be usefully employed. For this reason, the largest of the penguin kind, that have a thick heavy body to raise cannot fly at all. Their wings serve them rather as paddles to help them forward, when they attempt to move swiftly; and in a manner walk along the surface of the water. Even the smaller kinds seldom fly by choice; they flutter their wings with the swiftest efforts without making way; and though they have but a small weight of body to sustain, yet they seldom venture to quit the water where they are provided with food and protection.

As the wings of the penguin tribe are unfitted for flight, their legs are still more awkwardly adapted for walking. This whole tribe have all above the knee hid within the belly; and nothing appears but two short legs, or feet as some would call them, that seem stuck under the rump, and upon which the animal is very awkwardly supported. They seem, when sitting or attempting to walk, like a dog that has been taught to sit up, or to move a minuet. Their short legs drive the body in progression from side to side: and were they not assisted by their wings they could scarcely move faster than a tortoise.

This awkward position of the legs, which so unqualifies them for living upon land, adapts them admirably for a residence in water. In that the legs placed behind the moving body, pushes it forward

with great velocity, and these birds like Indian canoes, are the swiftest in the water, by having their paddles in the rear. Our sailors for this reason, give these birds the very homely, but expressive name of *arae-feet*.

Nor are they less qualified for diving than swimming. By ever so little inclining their bodies forward, they lose their centre of gravity; and every stroke from their feet only tends to sink them the faster. In this manner they can either dive at once to the bottom, or swim between two waters; where they continue fishing for some minutes, and then ascending, catch an instantaneous breath, to descend once more to renew their operations. Hence it is that these birds, which are so defenceless, and so easily taken by land, are impregnable by water. If they perceive themselves pursued in the least, they instantly sink and show nothing more than their bills, till the enemy is withdrawn. Their very internal conformation assists their power of keeping long under water. Their lungs are fitted with numerous vacuities, by which they can take in a very large inspiration; and this probably serves them for a length of time.

As they never visit land, except when they come to breed, their feathers take a colour from their situation. That part of them which has been continually bathed in the water, is white; while their backs and wings are of different colours, according to the different species. They are also covered more warmly all over the body with feathers than any other bird whatever; so that the sea seems entirely their element; and but for the necessary duties of propagating their species, we should scarcely have the smallest opportunity of seeing them, and should be utterly unacquainted with their history.

Of all this tribe, the Magellanic Penguin is the

largest, and the most remarkable. In size it approaches near that of a tame goose. It never flies, as its wings are very short, and covered with stiff hard feathers, and are always seen expanded, and hanging uselessly down by the bird's sides. The upper part of the head, back and rump, are covered with stiff, black feathers; while the belly and breast, as is common with all of this kind, are of a snowy whiteness, except a line of black that is seen to cross the crop. The bill, which from the base to about half way is covered with wrinkles, is black, but marked crosswise with a stripe of yellow. They walk erect, with their heads on high, their fin-like wings hanging down like arms; so that to see them at a distance they look like so many children with white aprons. From hence they are said to unite in themselves the qualities of men, fowls, and fishes. Like men, they are upright; like fowls, they are feathered; and like fishes they have fin-like instruments, that beat the water before, and serve for all the purposes of swimming rather than flying.

They feed upon fish, and seldom come ashore except in the breeding season. As the seas in that part of the world abound with a variety, they seldom want food; and their extreme fatness seems a proof of the plenty in which they live. They dive with great rapidity, and are voracious to a great degree. One of them, described by Clusius, though but very young, would swallow an entire herring at a mouthful, and often three successively before it was appeased. In consequence of this gluttonous appetite, their flesh is rank and fishy; though our sailors say, that *it is pretty good eating*. In some the flesh is so tough, and the feathers so thick, that they stand the blow of a scimitar without injury.

They are a bird of society; and especially when they come on shore, they are seen drawn up in rank

and file, upon the ledge of a rock, standing together with the albatross, as if in consultation. This is previous to their laying, which generally begins in that part of the world in the month of November. Their preparations for laying are attended with no great trouble, as a small depression in the earth, without any other nest, serves for this purpose. The warmth of their feathers and the heat of their bodies is such, that the progress of incubation is carried on very rapidly.

But there is a difference in the manner of this bird's nestling in other countries, which I can only ascribe to the frequent disturbances it has received from man or from quadrupeds in its recesses. In some places, instead of contenting itself with a superficial depression in the earth, the penguin is found to burrow two or three yards deep: in other places it is seen to forsake the level, and to clamber up the ledge of a rock, where it lays its egg, and hatches in that bleak, exposed situation. These precautions may probably have been taken in consequence of dear-bought experience. In those countries where the bird fears for her own safety, or that of her young, she may providentially provide against danger, by digging, or even by climbing; for both which she is but ill adapted by nature. In those places, however, where the penguin has had but few visits from man, her nest is made, with the most confident security, in the middle of some large plain, where they are seen by thousands. In that unguarded situation, neither expecting nor fearing a powerful enemy, they continue to sit brooding; and even when man comes among them, have at first no apprehension of their danger. Some of this tribe have been called, by our seamen, the *Booby*, from the total insensibility which they show when they are sought to their destruction. But it is not considered that these birds have never

been taught to know the dangers of a human enemy: it is against the fox or the vulture that they have learned to defend themselves; but they have no idea of injury from a being so very unlike their natural opposers. The penguins, therefore, when our seamen first came among them, tamely suffered themselves to be knocked on the head, without even attempting an escape. They have stood to be shot at in flocks, without offering to move, in silent wonder, till every one of their number has been destroyed. Their attachment to their nests was still more powerful; for the females tamely suffered the men to approach and take their eggs without any resistance. But the experience of a few of those unfriendly visits, has long since taught them to be more upon their guard in choosing their situations, or to leave those retreats where they were so little able to oppose their invaders.

The penguin lays but one egg; and, in frequented shores, is found to burrow like a rabbit: sometimes three or four take possession of one hole, and hatch their young together. In the holes of the rocks where nature has made them a retreat, several of this tribe, as Linnæus assures us, are seen together. There the females lay their single egg in a common nest, and sit upon this, their general possession, by turns; while one is placed as a sentinel, to give warning of approaching danger. The egg of the penguin, as well as of all this tribe, is very large for the size of the bird, being generally found bigger than that of a goose. But as there are many varieties of the penguin, and as they differ in size, from that of a Muscovy duck to a swan, the eggs differ in the same proportion.



1 Little Auk 2 Red Throated Loon
3 Pinnated Tern 4 Great Tern.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF THE AUK, PUFFIN, AND OTHER BIRDS OF THE
PENGUIN KIND.

OF a size far inferior to the penguin, but with nearly the same form, and exactly of the same appetites and manners, there is a very numerous tribe. These frequent our shores, and, like the penguin, have their legs placed behind. They have short wings, which are not totally incapable of flight; with round bills for seizing their prey, which is fish. They live upon the water, in which they are continually seen diving; and seldom venture upon land, except for the purposes of continuing their kind.

The first of this smaller tribe is the Great Northern Diver, which is nearly the size of a goose: it is beautifully variegated all over with many stripes, and differs from the penguin, in being much slenderer and more elegantly formed. The Gray Speckled Diver does not exceed the size of a Muscovy duck; and, except in size, greatly resembles the former. The Auk, which breeds on the islands of St. Kilda, and chiefly differs from the penguin in size and colour: it is smaller than a duck; and the whole of the breast and belly, as far as the middle of the throat, is white. The Guillemot is about the same size; it differs from the auk, in having a longer, a slenderer, and a straighter bill. The Scarlet-throated Diver may be distinguished by its name; and the Puffin, or Coulterneb, is one of the most remarkable birds we know.

Words cannot easily describe the form of the bill of the puffin, which differs so greatly from that of any other bird. Those who have seen the coulter of a plough, may form some idea of the beak of this

odd-looking animal. The bill is flat; but, very different from that of the duck, its edge is upwards. It is of a triangular figure, and ending in a sharp point; the upper chap bent a little downward, where it is joined to the head; and a certain callous substance encompassing its base, as in parrots. It is of two colours; ash-coloured near the base, and red towards the point. It has three furrows or grooves impressed in it, one in the livid part, two in the red. The eyes are fenced with a protuberant skin of a livid colour, and they are gray or ash-coloured. These are marks sufficient to distinguish this bird by; but its value to those in whose vicinity it breeds, renders it still more an object of curiosity.

The puffin, like all the rest of this kind, has its legs thrown so far back, that it can hardly move without tumbling. This makes it rise with difficulty, and subject to many falls before it gets upon the wing; but as it is a small bird, not much bigger than a pigeon, when it once rises, it can continue its flight with great celerity.

Both this and all the former build no nest, but lay their eggs either in the crevices of rocks, or in holes under ground near the shore. They chiefly choose the latter situation; for the puffin, the auk, the guillemot, and the rest, cannot easily rise to the nest when in a lofty situation. Many are the attempts these birds are seen to make to fly up to those nests which are so high above the surface. In rendering them inaccessible to mankind, they often render them almost inaccessible to themselves. They are frequently obliged to make three or four efforts before they can come at the place of incubation. For this reason the auk and guillemot, when they have once laid their single egg, which is extremely large for the size, seldom forsake it until it is excluded. The male, who is better furnished for flight, feeds

the female during this interval; and so bare is the place where she sits, that the egg would often roll down from the rock, did not the body of the bird support it.

But the puffin seldom chooses these inaccessible and troublesome heights for its situation. Relying on its courage, and the strength of its bill, with which it bites most terribly, it either makes or finds a hole in the ground, where to lay and bring forth its young. All the winter these birds, like the rest, are absent, visiting regions too remote for discovery. At the latter end of March, or the beginning of April, come over a troop of their spies or harbingers, that stay two or three days, as it were to view and search out for their former situations, and see whether all be well. This done, they once more depart, and, about the beginning of May, return again with the whole army of their companions. But if the season happens to be stormy and tempestuous, and the sea troubled, the unfortunate voyagers undergo incredible hardships; and they are found, by hundreds, cast away upon the shores, lean, and perished with famine.* It is most probable, therefore, that this voyage is performed more on the water than in the air; and as they cannot fish in stormy weather, their strength is exhausted before they can arrive at their wished-for harbour.

The puffin, when it prepares for breeding, which always happens a few days after its arrival, begins to scrape up a hole in the ground not far from the shore, and when it has some way penetrated the earth, it then throws itself upon its back, and with bill and claws thus burrows inward, till it has dug a hole with several windings and turnings, from eight to ten feet deep. It particularly seeks to dig under a stone, where it expects the greatest security. In this

* Willoughby's Ornith p. 328

fortified retreat it lays one egg, which, though the bird be not much bigger than a pigeon, is of the size of a hen's.

When the young one is excluded, the parent's industry and courage are incredible. Few birds or beasts will venture to attack them in their retreats. When the great sea-raven, as Jacobson informs us, comes to take away their young, the puffins boldly oppose him. Their meeting affords a most singular combat. As soon as the raven approaches, the puffin catches him under the throat with its beak, and sticks its claws into his breast, which makes the raven, with a loud screaming, attempt to get away; but the little bird still holds fast to the invader, nor lets him go till they both come to the sea, where they drop down together, and the raven is drowned: yet the raven is but too often successful; and invading the puffin at the bottom of its hole, devours both the parent and its family.

But were a punishment to be inflicted for immorality in irrational animals, the puffin is justly a sufferer from invasion, as it is often itself one of the most terrible invaders. Near the Isle of Anglesey, in an islet called Priesholm, their flocks may be compared, for multitude, to swarms of bees. In another islet, called the Calf of Man, a bird of this kind, but of a different species, is seen in great abundance. In both places, numbers of rabbits are found to breed; but the puffin, unwilling to be at the trouble of making a hole, when there is one ready made, dispossesses the rabbits, and, it is not unlikely, destroys their young. It is in these unjustly acquired retreats that the young puffins are found in great numbers, and become a very valuable acquisition to the natives of the place. The old ones (I am now speaking of the Manks puffin) early in the morning, at break of day, leave their nests and young, and even the island,

nor do they return till night-fall. All this time they are diligently employed in fishing for their young; so that their retreats on land, which in the morning were loud and clamorous, are now still and quiet, with not a wing stirring till the approach of dusk, when their screams once more announce their return. Whatever fish, or other food, they have procured in the day, by night begins to suffer a kind of half digestion, and is reduced to an oily matter, which is ejected from the stomach of the old ones into the mouth of the young. By this they are nourished, and become fat to an amazing degree. When they are arrived to their full growth, they who are intrusted by the lord of the island, draw them from their holes; and, that they may more readily keep an account of the number they take, cut off one foot as a token. Their flesh is said to be excessively rank, as they feed upon fish, especially sprats, and seaweed; however, when they are pickled and preserved with spices, they are admired by those who are fond of high eating. We are told, that formerly their flesh was allowed by the church on Lenten days. They were, at that time, also taken by ferrets, as we do rabbits. At present, they are either dug out, or drawn out from their burrows with a hooked stick. —They bite extremely hard, and keep such fast hold of whatever they seize upon, as not to be easily disengaged. Their noise when taken is very disagreeable, being like the efforts of a dumb person attempting to speak.

The constant depredation which these birds annually suffer, does not in the least seem to intimidate them, or drive them away; on the contrary, as the people say, the nest must be robbed or the old ones will breed there no longer. All birds of this kind lay but one egg; yet if that be taken away, they will lay another, and so on to a third; which seems to imply,

that robbing their nests does not much intimidate them from laying again. Those however, whose nests have been thus destroyed, are often too late in bringing up their young; who, if they be not fledged and prepared for migration when all the rest depart, are left at land to shift for themselves. In August the whole tribe is seen to take leave of their summer residence, nor are they observed any more till the return of the ensuing spring. It is probable that they sail away to more southern regions, as our mariners frequently see myriads of water fowl upon their return, and steering usually to the north. Indeed, the coldest countries seem to be their most favoured retreats; and the number of water fowl is much greater in those colder climates, than in the warmer regions near the Line. The quantity of oil which abounds in their bodies, serves as a defence against cold, and preserves them in vigour against its severity; but the same provision of oil is rather detrimental in warm countries, as it turns rancid, and many of them die of disorders which arise from its putrefaction. In general, however, water fowl can be properly said to be of no climate, the element upon which they live being their proper residence. They necessarily spend a few months of summer upon land, to bring up their young, but the rest of their time is probably consumed in their migrations, or near some unknown coasts, where their provision of fish is found in greatest abundance.

Before I go to the third general division of water fowls, it may not be improper to observe, that there is one species of round-billed water fowl, that does not properly lie within any of the former distributions. This is the Gooseander; a bird with the body and wing shaped like those of the penguin kind, but with legs not hid in the belly. It may be distinguished from all others by its bill, which is round, hooked

at the point, and toothed, both upper and under chap, like a saw. Its colours are various and beautiful; however, its manners and appetites entirely resemble those of the Diver. It feeds upon fish, for which it dives; and is said to build its nest upon trees, like the heron and the cormorant. It seems to form the shade between the penguin and the goose kind; having a round bill, like the one; and unembarrassed legs, like the other. In the shape of the head, neck, and body, it resembles them both.

CHAPTER IX.

OF BIRDS OF THE GOOSE KIND, PROPERLY SO CALLED.

THE Swan, the Goose, and the Duck, are leaders of a numerous, useful, and beautiful tribe of birds, that we have reclaimed from a state of nature, and have taught to live in dependence about us. To describe any of these, would be as superfluous as definitions usually are when given of things with which we are already well acquainted. There are few that have not had opportunities of seeing them, and whose ideas would not anticipate our description. But, though nothing be so easy as to distinguish these in general from each other, yet the largest of the duck kind approach the goose so nearly, that it may be proper to mark the distinctions.

The marks of the goose are, a bigger body, large wings, a longer neck, a white ring about the rump, a bill thicker at the base, slenderer towards the tip, with shorter legs placed forward on the body. They both have a waddling walk; but the duck, from the position of its legs, has it in a greater degree. By these marks, these similar tribes may be known

asunder; and though the duck should be found to equal the goose in size, which sometimes happens, yet there are still other sufficient distinctions.

But they all agree in many particulars, and have a nearer affinity to each other than the neighbouring kinds in any other department. Their having been tamed has produced alterations in each, by which they differ as much from the wild ones of their respective kinds, as they do among themselves. There is nearly as much difference between the wild and the tame duck, as between some sorts of the duck and the goose; but still, the characteristics of the kind are strongly marked and obvious, and this tribe can never be mistaken.

The bill is the first great obvious distinction of the goose kind from all of the feathered tribe. In other birds it is round and wedge-like, or crooked at the end. In all the goose kind it is flat and broad, made for the purpose of skimming ponds and lakes of the mantling weeds that stand on the surface. The bills of other birds are made of a horny substance throughout; these have their inoffensive bills sheathed with a skin which covers them all over. The bill of every other bird seems in some measure formed for piercing or tearing; theirs are only fitted for shoveling up their food, which is chiefly of the vegetable kind.

Though these birds do not reject animal food when offered them, yet they can contentedly subsist upon vegetables, and seldom seek any other. They are easily provided for; wherever there is water there seems to be plenty. All the other web-footed tribes are continually voracious, continually preying. These lead more harmless lives: the weeds on the surface of the water, or the insects at the bottom, the grass by the bank, or the fruits and corn in cultivated grounds, are sufficient to satisfy their easy

appetites: yet these, like every other animal, will not reject flesh, if properly prepared for them; it is sufficient praise to them that they do not eagerly pursue it.

As their food is chiefly vegetables, so their fecundity is in proportion. We have had frequent opportunities to observe, that all the predatory tribes, whether of birds or quadrupeds are barren and unfruitful. We have seen the lion with its two cubs, the eagle with the same number, and the penguin with even but one. Nature, that has supplied them with powers of destruction, has denied them fertility. But it is otherwise with these harmless animals I am describing. They seem formed to fill up the chasms in animated nature caused by the voraciousness of others. They breed in great abundance, and lead their young to the pool the instant they are excluded.

As their food is simple, so their flesh is nourishing and wholesome. The swan was considered as a high delicacy among the ancients; the goose was abstained from as totally indigestible. Modern manners have inverted tastes; the goose is now become the favourite, and the swan is seldom brought to table, unless for the purposes of ostentation. But at all times the flesh of the duck was in high esteem; the ancients thought even more highly of it than we do. We are contented to eat it as a delicacy, they also considered it as a medicine; and Plutarch assures us, that Cato kept his whole family in health, by feeding them with duck whenever they threatened to be out of order.

These qualities of great fecundity, easy sustenance, and wholesome nourishment, have been found so considerable as to induce man to take these birds from a state of nature, and render them domestic. How long they have been thus dependants upon his pleasures, is not known; for, from the

earliest accounts, they were considered as familiars about him. The time must have been very remote; for there have been many changes wrought in their colours, their figures, and even their internal parts, by human cultivation. The different kinds of these birds, in a wild state, are simple in their colourings: when one has seen a wild goose or a wild duck, a description of its plumage will, to a feather, exactly correspond with that of any other. But in the tame kinds no two of any species are exactly alike. Different in their size, their colours and frequently in their general form, they seem the mere creatures of art; and, having been so long dependant upon man for support they seem to assume forms entirely suited to his pleasures or necessities.

CHAPTER X.

OF THE SWAN, TAME AND WILD.

No bird makes a more indifferent figure upon land, or a more beautiful one in the water, than the Swan. When it ascends from its favourite element, its motions are awkward, and its neck is stretched forward with an air of stupidity; but when it is seen smoothly sailing along the water, commanding a thousand graceful attitudes, moving at pleasure without the smallest effort, when it "proudly rows its state," as Milton has it, "with arched neck, between its white wings mantling," there is not a more beautiful figure in all nature. In the exhibition of its form, there are no broken or harsh lines, no constrained or catching motions, but the roundest contours, and the easiest transitions; the eye wanders over every part with insatiable pleasure, and every part takes a new grace with new motion.

This fine bird has long been rendered domestic; and it is now a doubt whether there be any of the tame kind in a state of nature. The wild swan, though so strongly resembling this in colour and form, is yet a different bird; for it is very differently formed within. The wild swan is less than the tame by almost a fourth, for as the one weighs twenty pounds, the other only weighs sixteen pounds and three quarters. The colour of the tame swan is all over white; that of the wild bird is, along the back and the tips of the wings, of an ash colour. But these are slight differences compared to what are found upon dissection. In the tame swan, the wind-pipe sinks down into the lungs in the ordinary manner; but in the wild, after a strange and wonderful contortion, like what we have seen in the crane, it enters through a hole formed in the breast-bone; and being reflected therein, returns by the same aperture; and being contracted into a narrow compass by a broad and bony cartilage, it is divided into two branches, which, before they enter the lungs, are dilated, and as it were swoln out into two cavities.

Such is the extraordinary difference between these two animals, which externally seem to be of one species. Whether it is in the power of long continued captivity and domestication to produce this strange variety between birds otherwise the same, I will not take upon me to determine; but certain it is, that our tame swan is no where to be found, at least in Europe, in a state of nature.

As it is not easy to account for this difference of conformation, so it is still more difficult to reconcile the accounts of the ancients with the experience of the moderns, concerning the vocal powers of this bird. The tame swan is one of the most silent of all birds; and the wild one has a note extremely loud and disagreeable. It is probable, the convolutions

of the windpipe may contribute to increase the clangour of it; for such is the harshness of its voice, that the bird from thence has been called the *Hooper*. In neither is there the smallest degree of melody; nor have they, for above this century, been said to give specimens of the smallest musical abilities: yet, notwithstanding this, it was the general opinion of antiquity, that the swan was a most melodious bird, and that, even to its death, its voice went on improving. It would show no learning to produce what they have said upon the music of the swan: it has already been collected by Aldrovandus; and still more professedly by the Abbé Gedoyn, in the Transactions of the Academy of Belles Lettres. From these accounts it appears, that while Plato, Aristotle, and Diodorus Siculus, believed the vocality of the swan, Pliny and Virgil seem to doubt that received opinion. In this equipoise of authority, Aldrovandus seems to have determined in favour of the Greek philosophers; and the form of the windpipe in the wild swan, so much resembling a musical instrument, inclined his belief still more strongly. In aid of this also came the testimony of Pendasius, who affirmed, that he had often heard swans sweetly singing in the lake of Mantua, as he was rowed up and down in a boat; as also of Olaus Wormius, who professed that many of his friends and scholars had heard them singing. "There was," says he, "in my family, a very honest young man, John Rostorph, a student in divinity, and a Norwegian by nation. This man did, upon his credit, and with the interposition of an oath, solemnly affirm, that once in the territory of Dronten, as he was standing on the sea-shore early in the morning, he heard an unusual and sweet murmur, composed of the most pleasant whistlings and sounds: he knew not at first whence they came, or how they were made, for he saw no man near to produce them; but

looking round about him, and climbing to the top of a certain promontory, he there espied an infinite number of swans gathered together in a bay, and making the most delightful harmony; a sweeter in all his lifetime he had never heard." These were accounts sufficient at least to keep opinion in suspense, though in contradiction to our own experience; but Aldrovandus, to put, as he supposed, the question past all doubt, gives us the testimony of a countryman of our own, from whom he had the relation. This honest man's name was Mr. George Braun, who assured him, that nothing was more common in England than to hear swans sing; that they were bred in great numbers in the sea, near London; and that every fleet of ships that returned from their voyages from distant countries, were met by swans, that came joyfully out to welcome their return, and salute them with a loud and cheerful singing! It was in this manner that Aldrovandus, that great and good man, was frequently imposed upon by the designing and the needy: his unbounded curiosity drew round him people of every kind, and his generosity was as ready to reward falsehood as truth.—Poor Aldrovandus! after having spent a vast fortune, for the purposes of enlightening mankind; after having collected more truth and more falsehood than any man ever did before him, he little thought of being reduced at last to want bread, to feel the ingratitude of his country, and to die a beggar in a public hospital!

Thus it appears that our modern authorities, in favour of the singing of swans, are rather suspicious, since they are reduced to this Mr. George Braun, and John Rostorph, the native of a country remarkable for ignorance and credulity. It is probable the ancients had some mythological meaning in ascribing melody to the swan; and as for the moderns, they

scarcely deserve our regard. The swan, therefore, must be content with that share of fame which it possesses on the score of its beauty; since the melody of its voice, without better testimony, will scarcely be admitted by even the credulous.

This beautiful bird is as delicate in its appetites, as elegant in its form. Its chief food is corn, bread, herbs growing in the water, and roots and seeds, which are found near the margin. It prepares a nest in some retired part of the bank, and chiefly where there is an islet in the stream. This is composed of water plants, long grass, and sticks; and the male and female assist in forming it with great assiduity. The swan lays seven or eight eggs, white, much larger than those of a goose, with a hard, and sometimes a tuberos shell. It sits near two months before its young are excluded, which are ash-coloured when they first leave the shell, and for some months after. It is not a little dangerous to approach the old ones when their little family are feeding round them. Their fears, as well as their pride, seem to take the alarm; and they have sometimes been known to give a blow with their pinion, that has broke a man's leg or arm.

It is not till they are a twelvemonth old that the young swans change their colour with their plumage. All the stages of this bird's approach to maturity are slow, and seem to mark its longevity. It is two months hatching; a year in growing to its proper size; and if, according to Pliny's observation, that those animals that are longest in the womb are the longest lived, the swan is the longest in the shell of any bird we know, and is said to be remarkable for its longevity. Some say that it lives three hundred years; and Willoughby, who is in general diffident enough, seems to believe the report. A goose, as he justly observes, has been known to live a hundred;

and the swan, from its superior size, and from its harder firmer flesh, may naturally be supposed to live still longer.

Swans were formerly held in such great esteem in England, that, by an act of Edward the Fourth, none except the son of the king was permitted to keep a swan, unless possessed of five marks a-year. By a subsequent act, the punishment for taking their eggs was imprisonment for a year and a day, and a fine at the king's will. At present they are but little valued for the delicacy of their flesh, but many are still preserved for their beauty. We see multitudes on the Thames and Trent; but no where greater numbers than on the salt water inlet of the sea near Abbotsbury in Dorsetshire.

CHAPTER XI.

OF THE GOOSE, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE Goose, in its domestic state, exhibits a variety of colours. The wild goose always retains the same marks: the whole upper part is ash-coloured; the breast and belly are of a dirty white; the bill is narrow at the base, and at the tip it is black; the legs are of a saffron colour, and the claws black. These marks are seldom found in the tame, whose bill is entirely red, and whose legs are entirely brown. The wild goose is rather less than the tame; but both invariably retain a white ring round their tail, which shows that they are both descended from the same original.

The wild goose is supposed to breed in the northern parts of Europe, and in the beginning of winter to descend into more temperate regions. They are

often seen flying at very great heights, in flocks from fifty to a hundred, and seldom resting by day. Their cry is frequently heard when they are at an imperceptible distance above us; and this seems bandied from one to the other, as among hounds in the pursuit. Whether this be the note of mutual encouragement, or the necessary consequence of respiration, is doubtful; but they seldom exert it when they alight in these journeys.

Upon their coming to the ground by day, they range themselves in a line like cranes; and seem rather to have descended for rest than for other refreshment. When they have sate in this manner for an hour or two, I have heard one of them, with a loud long note, sound a kind of charge, to which the rest punctually attended, and they pursued their journey with renewed alacrity. Their flight is very regularly arranged; they either go in a line abreast, or in two lines, joining in an angle in the middle. I doubt whether the form of their flight be thus arranged to cut the air with greater ease, as is commonly believed; I am more apt to think it is to present a smaller mark to fowlers from below. A bullet might easily reach them if huddled together in a flock, and the same discharge might destroy several at once; but by their manner of flying no shot from below can affect above one of them; and from the height at which they fly, this is not easy to be hit.

The Barnacle differs in some respects from both these; being less than either, with a black bill, much shorter than either of the preceding. It is scarcely necessary to combat the idle error of this bird's being bred from a shell sticking to ships' bottoms; it is well known to be hatched from an egg in the ordinary manner, and to differ in very few particulars from all the rest of its kind.

The Brent goose is still less than the former, and

not bigger than a Muscovy duck, except that the body is longer. The head, neck, and upper part of the breast, are black; about the middle of the neck, on each side, are two small spots or lines of white, which together appear like a ring.

These, and many other varieties, are found in this kind; which agree in one common character of feeding upon vegetables, and being remarkable for their fecundity. Of these, however, the tame goose is the most fruitful. Having less to fear from its enemies, leading a securer and a more plentiful life, its prolific powers increase in proportion to its ease; and though the wild goose seldom lays above eight eggs, the tame goose is often seen to lay above twenty. The female hatches her eggs with great assiduity; while the gander visits her twice or thrice a-day and sometimes drives her off to take her place, where he sits with great state and composure.

But beyond that of all animals is his pride when the young are excluded: he seems then to consider himself as a champion not only obliged to defend his young, but also to keep off the suspicion of danger: he pursues dogs and men that never attempt to molest him; and though the most harmless thing alive, is then the most petulant and provoking. When, in this manner, he has pursued the calf or the mastiff, to whose contempt alone he is indebted for safety, he returns to his female and her brood in triumph, clapping his wings, screaming, and showing all the marks of conscious superiority. It is probable, however, these arts succeed in raising his importance among the tribe where they are displayed; and it is probable there is not a more respectable animal on earth to a goose than a gander!

A young goose is generally reckoned very good eating; yet the feathers of this bird still farther increase its value. I feel my obligations to this animal

every word I write; for, however deficient a man's head may be, his pen is nimble enough upon every occasion: it is happy indeed for us, that it requires no great effort to put it in motion. But the feathers of this bird are still as valuable in another capacity, as they make the softest and the warmest beds to sleep on.

Of goose feathers most of our beds in Europe are composed; in the countries bordering on the Levant, and in all Asia, the use of them is utterly unknown. They there use mattresses, stuffed with wool, or camel's hair, or cotton; and the warmth of their climate may perhaps make them dispense with cushions of a softer kind. But how it happens that the ancients had not the use of feather-beds, is to me surprising: Pliny tells us, indeed, that they made bolsters of feathers to lay their heads on; and this serves as a proof that they turned feathers to no other uses.

As feathers are a very valuable commodity, great numbers of geese are kept tame in the fens in Lincolnshire, which are plucked once or twice a-year. These make a considerable article of commerce. The feathers of Somersetshire are most in esteem; those of Ireland are reckoned the worst. Hudson's Bay also furnishes very fine feathers, supposed to be of the goose kind. The down of the swan is brought from Dantzic. The same place also sends us great quantities of the feathers of the cock and hen; but Greenland, Iceland, and Norway, furnish the best feathers of all: and in this number we may reckon the Eider down, of which we shall take notice in its place. The best method of curing feathers, is to lay them in a room in an open exposure to the sun; and, when dried, to put them into bags, and beat them well with poles to get the dust off. But after all, nothing will prevent, for a time, the heavy smell



1. Red breasted Merganser 2. Plover 3. Ender Duck.

which arises from the putrefaction of the oil contained in every feather; no exposure will draw this off, how long soever it be continued: they must be lain upon, which is the only remedy; and, for this reason, old feathers are much more valuable than new.

CHAPTER XII.

OF THE DUCK, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE tame Duck is the most easily reared of all our domestic animals. The very instincts of the young ones direct them to their favourite element; and though they are conducted by a hen, yet they despise the admonitions of their leader.

This serves as an incontestible proof, that all birds have their manners rather from nature than education. A falcon pursues the partridge, not because it is taught by the old one, but because its appetites make their importunate call for animal food; the cuckoo follows a very different trade from that which its nurse endeavoured to teach it, and if we may credit Pliny, in time destroys its instructor: animals of the duck kind also follow their appetites, not their tutor, and come to all their various perfections without any guide. All the arts possessed by man, are the result of accumulated experience; all the arts of inferior animals are self-taught, and scarce one acquired by imitation.

It is usual with the good women to lay duck-eggs under a hen, because she hatches them better than the original parent would have done. The duck seems to be a heedless, inattentive mother; she frequently leaves her eggs till they spoil, and even seems to forget that she is intrusted with the charge: she is

equally regardless of them when excluded; she leads them to the pond, and thinks she has sufficiently provided for her offspring when she has shown them the water. Whatever advantages may be procured by coming near the house, or attending in the yard, she declines them all; and often lets the vermin, who haunt the waters, destroy them, rather than bring them to take shelter nearer home. The hen is a nurse of a very opposite character; she broods with the utmost assiduity, and generally brings forth a young one from every egg committed to her charge: she does not lead her younglings to the water indeed, but she watchfully guards them, when there, by standing at the brink. Should the rat or the weasel attempt to seize them, the hen can give them protection; she leads them to the house when tired with paddling, and rears up the supposititious brood, without ever suspecting that they belong to another.

The wild duck differs in many respects from the tame; and in them there is still greater variety than among the domestic kinds. Of the tame duck there are not less than ten different sorts; and of the wild, Brisson reckons above twenty. The most obvious distinction between wild and tame ducks is in the colour of their feet; those of the tame duck being yellow, those of the wild duck black. The difference between wild ducks among each other, arises as well from their size as the nature of the place they feed in. Sea ducks, which feed in the salt waters, and dive much, have a broad bill, bending upwards, a large hind toe, and a long blunt tail. Pond ducks, which feed in plashes, have a straight and narrow bill, a small hind toe, and a sharp pointed train. The former are called, by our decoy-men, foreign ducks; the latter are supposed to be natives of England. It would be tedious to enter into the minute varieties of such a number of birds, all agreeing in the same

general figure, the same habits and mode of living, and differing in little more than their size and the colours of their plumage. In this tribe we may rank, as natives of our own European dominions, the Eider Duck, which is double the size of a common duck, with a black bill; the Velvet Duck, not so large, and with a yellow bill; the Scoter, with a knob at the base of a yellow bill; the Tufted Duck, adorned with a thick crest; the Scaup Duck, less than the common duck, with the bill of a grayish-blue colour; the Golden Eye, with a large white spot at the corners of the mouth, resembling an eye; the Sheldrake, with the bill of a bright red, and swelling into a knob; the Mallard, which is the stock from whence our tame breed has probably been produced; the Pintail, with the two middle feathers of the tail three inches longer than the rest; the Pochard, with the head and neck of a bright bay; the Widgeon, with a lead-coloured bill, and the plumage of the back marked with narrow black and white undulated lines, but best known by its whistling sound; lastly, the Teal, which is the smallest of this kind, with the bill black, the head and upper part of the neck of a bright bay. These are the most common birds of the duck kind among ourselves; but who can describe the amazing variety of this tribe, if he extends his view to the different quarters of the world? The most noted of the foreign tribe are, the Muscovy Duck, or, more properly speaking, the Musk Duck, so called from a supposed musky smell, with naked skin round the eyes, and which is a native of Africa. The Brazilian Duck, that is of the size of a goose, all over black, except the tips of the wings. The American Wood Duck, with a variety of beautiful colours, and a plume of feathers that falls from the back of the head like a friar's cowl. These, and twenty others, might be added, were increasing the number of names the way to enlarge the sphere of our comprehension.

All these live in the manner of our domestic ducks, keeping together in flocks in the winter, and flying in pairs in summer, bringing up their young by the water side, and leading them to their food as soon as out of the shell. Their nests are usually built among heath or rushes, not far from the water, and they lay twelve, fourteen, or more eggs, before they sit: yet this is not always their method; the dangers they continually encounter from their ground situation sometimes obliges them to change their manner of building, and their awkward nests are often seen exalted on the tops of trees. This must be a very great labour to perform, as the duck's bill is but ill formed for building a nest, and giving the materials of which it is composed a sufficient stability to stand the weather. The nest, whether high or low, is generally composed of singular materials. The longest grass, mixed with heath, and lined with the bird's own feathers, usually go to the composition: however, in proportion as the climate is colder, the nest is more artificially made, and more warmly lined. In the Arctic regions nothing can exceed the great care all of this kind take to protect their eggs from the intenseness of the weather. While the gull and the penguin kind seem to disregard the severest cold, the duck in those regions forms itself a hole to lay in, shelters the approach, lines it with a layer of long grass and clay, within that another of moss, and lastly, a warm coat of feathers or down. The eider duck is particularly remarkable for the warmth of its nest. This bird, which, as was said, is about twice as large as the common duck, and resides in the colder climates, lays from six to eight eggs, making her nest among the rocks, or the plants along the sea shore. The external materials of the nest are such as are in common with the rest of the kind; but the inside lining, on which the eggs are imme-

diately deposited, is at once the softest, warmest, and the lightest substance with which we are acquainted. This is no other than the inside down which covers the breast of the bird in the breeding season. This the female plucks off with her bill, and furnishes the inside of her nest with a tapestry more valuable than the most skilful artists can produce. The natives watch the place where she begins to build, and suffering her to lay, take away both the eggs and the nest. The duck, however, not discouraged by the first disappointment, builds and lays in the same place a second time; and this they in the same manner take away: the third time she builds, but the drake must supply the down from his breast to line the nest with; and if this be robbed, they both forsake the place, and breed there no more. This down the natives take care to separate from the dirt and moss with which it is mixed; and though no people stand in more need of a warm covering than themselves, yet their necessities compel them to sell it to the more indolent and luxurious inhabitants of the south, for brandy and tobacco.

As they possess the faculties of flying and swimming, so they are in general birds of passage, and it is most probable perform their journeys across the ocean as well on the water as in the air. Those that migrate to this country on the approach of winter, are seldom found so well tasted or so fat as the fowls that continue with us the year round: their flesh is often lean, and still oftener fishy; which flavour it has probably contracted in the journey, as their food in the lakes of Lapland, from whence they descend, is generally of the insect kind.

As soon as they arrive among us, they are usually seen flying in flocks to make a survey of those lakes where they intend to take up their residence for the winter. In the choice of these they have two ob-

jects in view—to be near their food, and yet remote from interruption. Their chief aim is to choose some lake in the neighbourhood of a marsh, where there is at the same time a cover of woods, and where insects are found in greatest abundance. Lakes therefore, with a marsh on one side, and a wood on the other, are seldom without vast quantities of wild fowl; and where a couple are seen at any time, that is a sufficient inducement to bring hundreds of others. The ducks flying in the air are often lured down from their heights by the loud voice of the mallard from below. Nature seems to have furnished this bird with very particular faculties for calling. The windpipe, where it begins to enter the lungs, opens into a kind of bony cavity, where the sound is reflected as in a musical instrument, and is heard a great way off. To this call all the stragglers resort; and in a week or a fortnight's time a lake that before was quite naked is black with water fowl, that have left their Lapland retreats to keep company with our ducks, who never stirred from home.

They generally choose that part of the lake where they are inaccessible to the approach of the fowler, in which they all appear huddled together, extremely busy and very loud. What it is can employ them all the day is not easy to guess. There is no food for them at the place where they sit and cabal thus, as they choose the middle of the lake; and as for courtship, the season for that is not yet come; so that it is wonderful what can so busily keep them occupied. Not one of them seems a moment at rest. Now pursuing one another, now screaming, then all up at once, then down again—the whole seems one strange scene of bustle with nothing to do.

They frequently go off in a more private manner by night to feed in the adjacent meadows and ditches,

which they dare not venture to approach by day. In these nocturnal adventures they are often taken; for though a timorous bird, yet they are easily deceived, and every springe seems to succeed in taking them. But the greatest quantities are taken in decoys, which, though well known near London, are yet untried in the remoter parts of the country. The manner of making and managing a decoy is as follows:—

A place is to be chosen for this purpose far remote from the common highway, and all noise of people. A decoy is best where there is a large pond surrounded by a wood, and beyond that a marshy and uncultivated country. When the place is chosen, the pool if possible is to be planted round with willows, unless a wood answers the purpose of shading it on every side. On the south and north sides of this pool are two, three, or four ditches or channels, made broad towards the pool, and growing narrower till they end in a point. These channels are to be covered over with nets, supported by hooped sticks bending from one side to the other; so that they form a vault or arch, growing narrower and narrower to the point, where it is terminated by a funnel net, like that in which fish are caught in wiers. Along the banks of these channels so netted over, which are called pipes, many hedges are made of reeds slanting to the edge of the channel, the acute angles to the side next the pool. The whole apparatus also is to be hidden from the pool by a hedge of reeds along the margin, behind which the fowler manages his operations. The place being fitted in this manner, the fowler is to provide himself with a number of wild ducks made tame, which are called decoys. These are always to be fed at the mouth or entrance of the pipe, and to be accustomed to come at a whistle.

As soon as the evening is set in, *the decoy rises*, as they term it, and the wild fowl feed during the

night. If the evening be still, the noise of their wings during their flight is heard at a very great distance, and produces no displeasing sensation. The fowler, when he finds a fit opportunity, and sees his decoy covered with fowl, walks about the pool, and observes into what pipe the birds gathered in the pool may be enticed or driven. Then casting hemp seed, or some such seed as will float on the surface of the water, at the entrance and up along the pipe, he whistles to his decoy ducks, who instantly obey the summons, and come to the entrance of the pipe, in hopes of being fed as usual. Thither also they are followed by a whole flock of wild ones, who little suspect the danger preparing against them. Their sense of smelling, however, is very exquisite, and they would soon discover their enemy, but that the fowler always keeps a piece of turf burning at his nose, against which he breathes, and this prevents the effluvia of his person from reaching their exquisite senses. The wild ducks, therefore, pursuing the decoy ducks, are led into the broad mouth of the channel or pipe, nor have the least suspicion of the man, who keeps hidden behind one of the hedges. When they have got up the pipe, however, finding it grow more and more narrow, they begin to suspect danger, and would return back, but they are now prevented by the man, who shows himself at the broad end below. Thither, therefore, they dare not return; and rise they may not, as they are kept by the net above from ascending. The only way left them, therefore, is the narrow funnelled net at the bottom; into this they fly, and there they are taken.

It often happens, however, that the wild fowl are in such a state of sleepiness or dozing that they will not follow the decoy ducks. Use is then generally made of a dog, who is taught his lesson. He passes backward and forward between the reed-hedges, in

which there are little holes, both for the decoy-man to see, and for the little dog to pass through. This attracts the eye of the wild fowl, who, prompted by curiosity, advance towards this little animal, while he all the time keeps playing among the reeds, nearer and nearer the funnel, till they follow him too far to recede. Sometimes the dog will not attract their attention till a red handkerchief, or something very singular, be put about him. The decoy ducks never enter the funnel net with the rest, being taught to dive under water as soon as the rest are driven in.

The general season for catching fowl in decoys is from the latter end of October till February. The taking them earlier is prohibited by an act of George the Second, which imposes a penalty of five shillings for every bird destroyed at any other season.

The Lincolnshire decoys are commonly let at a certain annual rent, from five pounds to twenty pounds a-year, and some even amount to thirty. These principally contribute to supply the markets of London with wild fowl. The number of ducks, widgeon, and teal that are sent thither is amazing. Above thirty thousand have been sent up in one season from ten decoys in the neighbourhood of Wainfleet. This quantity makes them so cheap on the spot, that it is asserted the several decoy-men would be glad to contract for years to deliver their ducks at the next town for ten pence the couple.

To this manner of taking the wild fowl in England, I will subjoin another still more extraordinary, frequently practised in China. Whenever the fowler sees a number of ducks settled in any particular splash of water, he sends off two or three gourds to float among them. These gourds resemble our pompions; but being made hollow, they swim on the surface of the water, and on one pool there may sometimes be seen twenty or thirty of these

gourds floating together. The fowl at first are a little shy of coming near them; but by degrees they come nearer; and as all birds at last grow familiar with a scare-crow, the ducks gather about these, and amuse themselves by whetting their bills against them. When the birds are as familiar with the gourds as the fowler could wish, he then prepares to deceive them in good earnest. He hollows out one of those gourds large enough to put his head in; and making holes to breathe and see through, he claps it on his head. Thus accoutred, he wades slowly into the water, keeping his body under, and nothing but his head in the gourd above the surface; and in that manner moves imperceptibly towards the fowls, who suspect no danger. At last, however, he fairly gets in among them; while they, having been long used to see gourds, take not the least fright while the enemy is in the very midst of them: and an insidious enemy he is; for ever as he approaches a fowl, he seizes it by the legs, and draws it in a jerk under water. There he fastens it under his girdle, and goes to the next, till he has thus loaded himself with as many as he can carry away. When he has got his quantity, without ever attempting to disturb the rest of the fowls on the pool, he slowly moves off again; and in this manner pays the flock three or four visits in a day. Of all the various artifices for catching fowl, this seems likely to be attended with the greatest success, as it is the most practised in China.

[The Eider Duck is double the size of the common duck. It has a cylindrical bill, and the wax is divided behind, and wrinkled. The feathers, which are very soft and valuable, fall off during incubation. The male is white above, but black below and behind; the female is greenish. This species is found in the Western Isles of Scotland, particularly on

Oransa, Barra, Rona, and Heisker, and on the Farn Isles; but in greater numbers in Norway, Iceland, and Greenland, from whence a vast quantity of the down known by the name of *eider* or *edder*, which these birds furnish, is annually imported. Its remarkably light, elastic, and warm qualities, make it highly esteemed as a stuffing for coverlets, by such whom age or infirmities render unable to support the weight of common blankets. This down, as was noticed above, is produced from the breast of the birds in the breeding season.

These birds are not numerous on the isles; and it is observed that the drakes keep on those most remote from the sitting places. The ducks continue on their nest till you come almost close to them, and when they rise are very slow fliers. The number of eggs in each nest are from three to five, warmly bedded in the down, of a pale olive colour, and very large, glossy, and smooth. They now and then, however, lay so many as eight; for Van Troil informs us, that no less than sixteen have been found in one nest, with two females, who agree remarkably well together. In America this bird is found as far south as New York, and breeds on the desert isles of New England; but most common every where to the north. They are said to be constant to the same breeding places, and that a pair has been observed to occupy the same nest for twenty years together. They take their young on their backs instantly to sea; then dive, to shake them off and teach them to shift for themselves. It is said, that the males are five years old before they come to their full colour; that they live to a great age, and will at length grow quite gray. They are very numerous in the Esquimaux lands, where and in Greenland they are called *mettek*. The natives kill them on the water with darts, striking them the moment they appear af-

ter diving; and know the place from their being preceded by the rising of bubbles. The flesh is much valued.]

CHAPTER XIII.

OF THE KING-FISHER.

I WILL conclude this History of Birds with one that seems to unite in itself somewhat of every class preceding. It seems at once possessed of appetites for prey like the rapacious kinds, with an attachment to water like the birds of that element. It exhibits in its form the beautiful plumage of the peacock, the shadings of the humming bird, the bill of the crane, and the short legs of the swallow. The bird I mean is the King-Fisher of which many extraordinary falsehoods have been propagated, and yet of which many extraordinary things remain to be said that are actually true.

The king-fisher is not much larger than a swallow; its shape is clumsy; the legs disproportionably small, and the bill disproportionably long—it is two inches from the base to the tip, the upper chap black, and the lower yellow; but the colours of this bird atone for its inelegant form; the crown of the head, and the coverts of the wings, are of a deep blackish-gray spotted with bright azure; the back and tail are of the most resplendent azure; the whole underside of the body is orange-coloured; a broad mark of the same passes from the bill beyond the eyes; beyond that is a large white spot; the tail is short and consists of twelve feathers of a rich deep blue; the feet are of a reddish-yellow, and the three joints of the outmost toe adhere to the middle toe, while the inner toe adheres only by one.

From the diminutive size, the slender short legs, and the beautiful colours of this bird, no person would be led to suppose it one of the most rapacious little animals that skims the deep. Yet it is for ever on the wing, and feeds on fish, which it takes in surprising quantities, when we consider its size and figure. It chiefly frequents the banks of rivers, and takes its prey after the manner of the osprey, balancing itself at a certain distance above the water for a considerable space, then darting into the deep, and seizing the fish with inevitable certainty. While it remains suspended in the air in a bright day, the plumage exhibits a beautiful variety of the most dazzling and brilliant colours. It might have been this extraordinary beauty that has given rise to fable; for wherever there is any thing uncommon, fancy is always willing to increase the wonder.

Of this bird it has been said that she built her nest on the water, and thus in a few days hatched and produced her young; but, not to be interrupted in this task, she was said to be possessed of a charm to allay the fury of the waves, and during this period the mariner might sail with the greatest security. The ancient poets are full of these fables; their historians are not exempt from them. Cicero has written a long poem in praise of the halcyon, of which there remains but two lines. Even the emperor Gordian has written a poem on this subject, of which we have nothing remaining. These fables have been adopted each by one of the earliest fathers of the church. "Behold," says St. Ambrose, "the little bird, which in the midst of the winter lays her eggs on the sand by the shore. From that moment the winds are hushed, the sea becomes smooth, and the calm continues for fourteen days. This is the time she requires; seven days to hatch, and seven days to foster her young. Their Creator has taught

these little animals to make their nest in the midst of the most stormy season, only to manifest his kindness by granting them a lasting calm. The seamen are not ignorant of this blessing; they call this interval of fair weather their *halcyon days*; and they are particularly careful to seize the opportunity, as then they need fear no interruption." This, and a hundred other instances might be given of the credulity of mankind with respect to this bird: they entered into speculations concerning the manner of her calming the deep, the formation of her nest, and her peculiar sagacity; at present we do not speculate, because we know, with respect to our king-fisher, that most of the facts are false. It may be alledged, indeed, with some show of reason, that the halcyon of the ancients was a different bird from our king-fisher; it may be urged, that many birds, especially on the Indian Ocean build a floating nest upon the sea: but still the history of the ancient halcyon is clogged with endless fable; and it is but an indifferent method to vindicate falsehood by showing that a part of the story is true.

The king-fisher with which we are acquainted at present has none of those powers of allaying the storm, or building upon the waves; it is contented to make its nest on the banks of rivers, in such situations as not to be affected by the rising of the stream. When it has found a place for its purpose, it hollows out with its bill a hole about a yard deep; or if it finds the deserted hole of a rat, or one caused by the root of a tree decaying, it takes quiet possession. This hole it enlarges at the bottom to a good size, and lining it with the down of the willow, lays its eggs there without any further preparation.

Its nest, or rather hole, is very different from that described by the ancients, by whom it is said to be made in the shape of a long-necked gourd of the

bones of the sea-needle. The bones, indeed, are found there in great quantities, as well as the scales of fishes; but these are the remains of the bird's food, and by no means brought there for the purposes of warmth or convenience. The king-fisher, as Bellonius says, feeds upon fish, but is incapable of digesting the bones and scales, which he throws up again, as eagles and owls are seen to do a part of their prey. These fill the bird's nest of course; and although they seem as if designedly placed there, are only a kind of nuisance.

In these holes, which, from the remains of fish brought there, are very fetid, the king-fisher is often found with from five eggs to nine. There the female continues to hatch even though disturbed; and though the nest be robbed, she will again return and lay there. "I have had one of those females brought me," says Reaumur, "which was taken from her nest about three leagues from my house. After admiring the beauty of her colours, I let her fly again, when the fond creature was instantly seen to return back to the nest where she had just before been made a captive. There joining the male, she again began to lay, though it was for the third time, and though the season was very far advanced. At each time she had seven eggs. The older the nest is, the greater quantity of fish-bones and scales does it contain: these are disposed without any order, and sometimes take up a good deal of room.

The female begins to lay early in the season, and excludes her first brood about the beginning of April. The male, whose fidelity exceeds even that of the turtle, brings her large provisions of fish while she is thus employed; and she, contrary to most other birds, is found plump and fat at that season. The male, that used to twitter before this, now enters the nest as quietly and as privately as possible.

The young ones are hatched at the expiration of twenty days; but are seen to differ as well in their size as in their beauty.

As the ancients have had their fables concerning this bird, so have the modern vulgar. It is an opinion generally received among them, that the flesh of the king-fisher will not corrupt, and that it will even banish all vermin. This has no better foundation than that which is said of its always pointing, when hung up dead, with its breast to the north. The only truth which can be affirmed of this bird when killed is, that its flesh is utterly unfit to be eaten; while its beautiful plumage preserves its lustre longer than that of any other bird we know.

Having thus given a short history of birds, I own I cannot take leave of this most beautiful part of the creation without reluctance. These splendid inhabitants of air possess all those qualities that can sooth the heart and cheer the fancy: the brightest colours, the roundest forms, the most active manners, and the sweetest music. In sending the imagination in pursuit of these, in following them to the chirping grove, the screaming precipice, or the glassy deep, the mind naturally lost the sense of its own situation, and, attentive to their little sports, almost forgot the task of describing them. Innocently to amuse the imagination in this dream of life is wisdom; and nothing is useless that, by furnishing mental employment, keeps us for a while in oblivion of those stronger appetites that lead to evil. But every rank and state of mankind may find something to imitate in those delightful songsters, and we may not only employ the time, but mend our lives by the contemplation. From their courage in defence of their young, and their assiduity in incubation, the coward may learn to be brave, and the rash to be patient. The inviolable attachment of some to their

companions may give lessons of fidelity; and the connubial tenderness of others, be a monitor to the incontinent. Even those, that are tyrants by nature, never spread capricious destruction, and, unlike man, never inflict a pain but when urged by necessity.

A HISTORY OF FISHES.

PART I.

OF FISHES IN GENERAL.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTION.

THE ocean is the great receptacle of fishes. It has been thought, by some, that all fish are naturally of that salt element, and that they have mounted up into fresh water by some accidental migration. A few still swim up rivers to deposit their spawn; but of the great body of fishes, of which the size is enormous and the shoals are endless, those all keep to the sea, and would quickly expire in fresh water. In that extensive and undiscovered abode, millions reside, whose manners are a secret to us, and whose very form is unknown. The curiosity of mankind, indeed, has drawn some from their depths, and his wants many more: with the figure of these at least he is acquainted; but for their pursuits, migrations, societies, antipathies, pleasures, times of gestation, and manner of bringing forth, all these are hidden in the turbulent element that protects them.

The number of fish to which we have given names, and of the figure, at least, of which we know something, according to Linnæus, are above four hundred. Thus to appearance, indeed, the history of fish is tolerably copious; but when we come to examine, it will be found, that of the greatest part of these we know very little. Those qualities, singularities, or advantages, that render animals worth naming, still remain to be discovered. The history of fishes, therefore, has little in it entertaining: for our philosophers hitherto, instead of studying their nature, have been employed in increasing their catalogues; and the reader, instead of observations of facts, is presented with a long list of names, that disgust him with their barren superfluity. It must displease him to see the language of a science increasing, while the science itself has nothing to repay the increasing tax laid upon his memory.

Most fish offer us the same external form; sharp at either end, and swelling in the middle, by which they are enabled to traverse the fluid which they inhabit with greater celerity and ease. The peculiar shape which nature has granted to most fishes, we endeavour to imitate in such vessels as are designed to sail with the greatest swiftness: however, the progress of a machine moved forward in the water by human contrivance, is nothing to the rapidity of an animal destined by nature to reside there. Any of the large fish overtake a ship in full sail with great ease, play round it without effort, and outstrip it at pleasure. Every part of the body seems exerted in this despatch; the fins, the tail, and the motion of the whole back-bone, assist progression, and it is to that flexibility of body, at which art cannot arrive, that fishes owe their great velocity.

The chief instruments in a fish's motion are the fins, which in some fish are much more numerous

than in others. A fish completely fitted for sailing, is furnished with not less than two pair; also three single fins, two above and one below. Thus equipped it migrates with the utmost rapidity, and takes voyages of a thousand leagues in a season. But it does not always happen that such fish as have the greatest number of fins have the swiftest motion: the shark is thought to be one of the swiftest swimmers, yet it wants the ventral or belly fins; the haddock does not move so swift, yet it is completely fitted for motion.

But the fins serve not only to assist the animal in progression, but in rising or sinking, in turning, or even leaping out of the water. To answer these purposes, the pectoral fins serve, like oars, to push the animal forward; they are placed at some little distance behind the opening of the gills; they are generally large and strong, and answer the same purposes to the fish in the water, as wings do to a bird in the air. With the help of these, and by their continued motion, the flying fish is sometimes seen to rise out of the water, and to fly above a hundred yards, till, fatigued with its exertions, it is obliged to sink down again. These also serve to balance the fish's head when it is too large for the body, and keep it from tumbling prone to the bottom, as is seen in large headed fishes, when the pectoral fins are cut off. Next these are seen the ventral fins, placed towards the lower part of the body, under the belly: these are always seen to lie flat on the water, in whatever situation the fish may be, and they serve rather to depress the fish in its element, than to assist progressive motion. The dorsal fin is situated along the ridge of the back, and serves to keep it in *equilibrio*, as also to assist its progressive motion. In many fishes this is wanting; but in all flat fishes it is very large, as the pectoral fins are proportionably

small. The anal fin occupies that part of the fish which lies between the anus and the tail; and this serves to keep the fish in its upright or vertical situation. Lastly, the tail, which in some fishes is flat, and upright in others, seems the grand instrument of motion: the fins are all but subservient to it, and give direction to its great impetus, by which the fish seems to dart forward with so much velocity. To explain all this by experiment, a carp is taken, and put into a large vessel. The fish, in a state of repose, spreads all its fins, and seems to rest upon its pectoral and ventral fins near the bottom: if the fish folds up (for it has the power of folding) either of its pectoral fins, it inclines to the same side; folding the right pectoral fin, the fish inclines to the right side; folding the left fin, it inclines to that side in turn. When the fish desires to have a retrograde motion, striking with the pectoral fins in a contrary direction effectually produces it. If the fish desires to turn, a blow from the tail sends it about; but if the tail strikes both ways, then the motion is progressive. In pursuance of these observations, if the dorsal and ventral fins be cut off, the fish reels to the right and left, and endeavours to supply its loss by keeping the rest of its fins in constant employment. If the right pectoral fin be cut off, the fish leans to that side; if the ventral fin on the same side be cut away, then it loses its equilibrium entirely. When the tail is cut off, the fish loses all motion, and gives itself up to where the water impels it.

From hence it appears, that each of these instruments has a peculiar use assigned it, but, at the same time, that they all conspire to assist each other's motions. Some fish are possessed of all, whose motions are yet not the swiftest; others have but a part, and yet dart in the water with great rapidity. The number, the size, and the situation of

the fins, therefore, seem rather calculated to correspond with the animal's figure, than solely to answer the purposes of promoting its speed. Where the head is large and heavy, there the pectoral fins are large, and placed forward to keep it from oversetting. Where the head is small, or produced out into a long beak, and therefore not too heavy for the tail, the pectoral fins are small, and the ventral fins totally wanting,

As most animals that live upon land are furnished with a covering to keep off the injuries of the weather, so all that live in the water are covered with a slimy glutinous matter, that, like a sheath, defends their bodies from the immediate contact of the surrounding fluid. This substance may be considered as a secretion from the pores of the animal's body, and serving, not only to defend, but to assist the fish's easy progress through the water. Beneath this, in many kinds, is found a strong covering of scales, that, like a coat of mail, defends it still more powerfully; and under that, before we come to the muscular parts of the body, an oily substance, which supplies the requisite warmth and vigour.

The fish, thus protected, and fitted for motion in its natural element, seems as well furnished with the means of happiness as quadrupeds or birds; but if we come to examine its faculties more nearly, we shall find it very much their inferior. The sense of touching, which beasts and birds have in a small degree, the fish, covered up in its own coat of mail, can have but little acquaintance with.

The sense of smelling, which in beasts is so exquisite, and among birds is not wholly unknown, seems given to fishes in a very moderate proportion. It is true that all fishes have one or more nostrils; and even those that have not the holes perceptible without, yet have the proper formation of the bones

for smelling within. But as air is the only medium we know for the distribution of odours, it cannot be supposed that these animals, residing in water, can be possessed of any power of being affected by them. If they have any perception of smells, it must be in the same manner as we distinguish by our taste; and it is probable the olfactory membrane in fish serves them instead of a distinguishing palate: by this they judge of substances, that, from tincturing the water with their vapours, are thus sent to the nostrils of the fish, and no doubt produce some kind of sensation. This most probably must be the use of that organ in those animals; as otherwise there would be the instruments of a sense provided for them, without any power in them of enjoyment.

As to tasting, they seem to make very little distinction; the palate of most fish is hard and bony, and consequently incapable of the powers of relishing different substances. This sense among quadrupeds, who possess it in some degree, arises from the soft pliancy of the organ, and the delicacy of the skin which covers the instruments of tasting; it may be considered in them as a more perfect and delicate kind of feeling: in the bony palate of fish, therefore, all powers of distinguishing are utterly taken away; and we have accordingly often seen these voracious animals swallow the fisherman's plummet instead of the bait.

Hearing in fishes is found still more imperfect, if it be found at all. Certain it is, that anatomists have not been able to discover, except in the whale kind, the smallest traces of an organ, either within or without the head of fishes. It is true that in the centre of the brain of some fishes are found now and then some little bones, the number and situation of which are entirely accidental. These bones M. Klein has supposed to constitute the organ of hearing; but if

we consider their entire dissimilitude to the bones that serve for hearing in other animals, we shall be of another opinion. The greatest number of fishes are deprived of these bones entirely; some fish have them in small numbers, and others in abundance, yet neither testify any excellence or defect in hearing. Indeed, of what advantage would this sense be to animals that are incapable of making themselves heard? They have no voice to communicate with each other, and consequently have no need of an organ for hearing. Mr. Gouan, who kept some gold fishes in a vase, informs us, that whatever noise he made he could neither disturb nor terrify them: he hallooed as loud as he could, putting a piece of paper between his mouth and the water to prevent the vibrations from affecting the surface, and the fishes still seemed insensible; but when the paper was removed, and the sound had its full play upon the water, the fishes seemed instantly to feel the change, and shrunk to the bottom. From this we may learn, that fishes are as deaf as they are mute; and that when they seem to hear the call of a whistle or a bell at the edge of a pond, it is rather the vibrations of the sound that affect the water by which they are excited, than any sounds that they hear.

Seeing seems to be the sense fishes are possessed of in the greatest degree; and yet even this seems obscure, if we compare it to that of other animals. The eye in almost all fish is covered with the same transparent skin that covers the rest of the head, and which probably serves to defend it in the water, as they are without eye-lids. The globe is more depressed anteriorly, and is furnished behind with a muscle, which serves to lengthen or flatten it, according to the necessities of the animal. The crystalline humour, which in quadrupeds is flat and of the shape of a button mould, in fishes is as round as

a pea, or sometimes oblong, like an egg. From all this it appears that fish are extremely near-sighted, and that even in the water they can see objects at a very small distance. This distance might very easily be ascertained, by comparing the refraction of bodies in the water with that formed by a lens that is spherical. Those unskilled in mathematical calculations will have a general idea of this from the glasses used by near-sighted people. Those whose crystalline humour is too convex, or, in other words, too round, are always very near-sighted, and obliged to use concave glasses to correct the imperfections of nature. The crystalline humour of fish is so round that it is not in the power of any glasses, much less of water, to correct their vision. This crystalline humour in fishes all must have seen, being that little hard pea-like substance which is found in their eyes after boiling. In the natural state it is transparent, and not much harder than a jelly.

From all this it appears, how far fish fall behind terrestrial animals in their sensations, and consequently in their enjoyments. Even their brain, which is by some supposed to be of a size with every animal's understanding, shows that fish are inferior even to birds in this particular. It is divided into three parts, surrounded with a whitish froth, and gives off nerves as well to the sense of sight as of smelling. In some fish it is gray, in others white; in some it is flatted, in others round; but in all extremely small, compared to the bulk of the animal.

Thus nature seems to have fitted these animals with appetites and powers of an inferior kind, and formed them for a sort of passive existence in the obscure and heavy element to which they are consigned. To preserve their own existence, and to continue it to their posterity, fill up the whole circle of their pursuits and enjoyments: to these they are

impelled rather by necessity than choice, and seem mechanically excited to every fruition. Their senses are incapable of making any distinctions, but they drive forward in pursuit of whatever they can swallow, conquer, or enjoy.

A ceaseless desire of food seems to give the ruling impulse to all their motions. This appetite impels them to encounter every danger, and indeed their rapacity seems insatiable. Even when taken out of the water, and almost expiring, they greedily swallow the very bait by which they were allured to destruction.

The maw is in general placed next the mouth, and though possessed of no sensible heat, is, however, endued with a surprising faculty of digestion. Its digestive power seems in some measure to increase with the quantity of food it is supplied with, a single pike having been known to devour a hundred roaches in three days. Its faculties also are as extraordinary; for it digests not only fish, but much harder substances, prawns, crabs, and lobsters, shells and all. These the cod or the sturgeon will not only devour, but dissolve down, though their shells are so much harder than the sides of the stomach which contains them. This amazing faculty in the cold maw of fishes has justly excited the curiosity of philosophers, and has effectually overturned the system of those who supposed that the heat of the stomach was alone a sufficient instrument for digestion. The truth seems to be, and some experiments of the skilful Dr. Hunter seem to evince, that there is a power of animal assimilation lodged in the stomach of all creatures, which we can neither describe nor define, converting the substances they swallow into a fluid fitted for their own peculiar support. This is done neither by trituration, nor by warmth, nor by motion, nor by a dissolving

fluid, nor by their united efforts; but by some principle in the stomach yet unknown, which acts in a different manner from all kinds of artificial maceration. The meat taken into the stomach or maw is often seen, though very near being digested, still to retain its original form, and ready for a total dissolution, while it appears to the eye as yet untouched by the force of the stomach. This animal power is lodged in the maw of fishes in a greater degree than in any other creatures; their digestive powers are quick, and their appetites ever are craving.

Yet though fish are thus hungry, and for ever prowling, no animals can suffer the want of food for so long a time. The gold and silver fish we keep in vases seem never to want any nourishment at all: whether it be that they feed on the water insects, too minute for our observation, or that water alone is a sufficient supply, is not evident; but they are often seen for months without apparent sustenance. Even the pike, the most voracious of fishes, will live in a pond where there is none but himself, and, what is more extraordinary, will be often found to thrive there.

Still, however, fish are, of all other animals, the most voracious and insatiable. Whatever any of them is able to swallow possessed of life, seems to be considered as the most desirable food. Some that have very small mouths feed upon worms and the spawn of other fish; others, whose mouths are larger, seek larger prey, it matters not of what kind, whether of another or their own. Those with the largest mouths pursue almost every thing that has life, and often meet each other in fierce opposition, when the fish with the largest swallow comes off with the victory, and devours its antagonist.

Thus are they irritated by the continual desire of satisfying their hunger; and the life of a fish, from

the smallest to the greatest, is but one scene of hostility, violence, and evasion. But the smaller fry stand no chance in the unequal combat; and their usual way of escaping, is by swimming into those shallows where the greater are unable, or too heavy to pursue. There they become invaders in turn, and live upon the spawn of larger fish, which they find floating upon the surface of the water. Yet there are dangers attending them in every place. Even in the shallows, the muscle, the oyster, and the scallop, lie in ambush at the bottom with their shells open, and whatever little fish inadvertently approaches into contact, they at once close their shells upon him, and devour the imprisoned prey at their leisure.

Nor is the pursuit of fishes, like that of terrestrial animals, confined to a single region, or to one effort: shoals of one species follow those of another through vast tracts of ocean, from the vicinity of the pole even down to the equator. Thus the cod, from the banks of Newfoundland, pursues the whiting, which flies before it even to the southern shores of Spain. The cachalot is said, in the same manner, to pursue a shoal of herrings, and to swallow thousands at a gulp.

This may be one cause of the annual migration of fishes from one part of the ocean to the other; but there are other motives, which come in aid of this also. Fishes may be induced to change the place of their residence, for one more suited to their constitutions, or more adapted to depositing their spawn. It is remarkable that no fish are fond of very cold waters, and generally frequent those places where it is warmest. Thus, in summer, they are seen in greatest numbers in the shallows near the shore, where the sun has power to warm the water to the bottom; on the contrary, in winter, they are found towards the bottom in the deep sea, for the cold of the atmosphere is not sufficiently penetrating

to reach them at those great depths Cold produces the same effect upon fresh water fishes; and when they are often seen dead after severe frosts, it is most probable that they have been killed by the severity of the cold, as well as by their being excluded by the ice from the air.

All fish live in the water, yet they all stand in need of air for their support. Those of the whale kind, indeed, breathe air in the same manner as we do, and come to the surface every two or three minutes to take a fresh inspiration; but those which continue entirely under water are yet under a necessity of being supplied with air, or they will expire in a very few minutes. We sometimes see all the fish of a pond killed, when the ice every where covers the surface of the water, and thus keeps off the air from the subjacent fluid. If a hole be made in the ice, the fish will be seen to come all to that part in order to take the benefit of a fresh supply. Should a carp in a large vase of water be placed under an air-pump, and then be deprived of its air, during the operation a number of bubbles will be seen standing on the surface of the fish's body; soon after, the animal will appear to breathe swifter and with greater difficulty; it will be seen to rise towards the surface to get more air; the bubbles on its surface begin to disappear; the belly, that was before swoln, will then fall of a sudden, and the animal sinks expiring and convulsed at the bottom.

So very necessary is air to all animals, but particularly to fish, that, as was said, they can live but a few minutes without it: yet nothing is more difficult to be accounted for than the manner in which they obtain this necessary supply. Those who have seen a fish in the water, must remember the motion of its lips and its gills, or at least of the bones on each side that cover them. This motion in the animal is.

without doubt, analogous to our breathing; but it is not air, but water that the fish actually sucks in and spouts out through the gills at every motion. The manner of its breathing is this; the fish first takes in a quantity of water by the mouth, which is driven to the gills; these close and keep the water so swallowed from returning by the mouth, while the bony covering of the gills prevents it from going through them, until the animal has drawn the proper quantity of air from the body of water thus imprisoned; then the bony covers open and give it a free passage, by which means also the gills again are opened, and admit a fresh quantity of water. Should the fish be prevented from the free play of its gills, or should the bony covers be kept from moving, by a string tied round them, the animal would soon fall into convulsions, and die in a few minutes.

But though this be the general method of explaining respiration in fishes, the difficulty remains to know what is done with this air, which the fish in this manner separates from the water. There seems no receptacle for containing it; the stomach being the chief cavity within the body, is too much filled with aliment for that purpose. There is indeed a cavity, and that a pretty large one, I mean the air-bladder, or swim, which may serve to contain it for vital purposes; but that our philosophers have long destined to a very different use. The use universally assigned to the air-bladder is the enabling the fish to rise or sink in the water at pleasure, as that is dilated or compressed. The use assigned by the ancients for it was to come in aid of the lungs, and to remain as a kind of storehouse of air to supply the animal in its necessities. I own my attachment to this last opinion; but let us exhibit both with their proper share of evidence, and the reader must be left to determine.

The air-bladder is described as a bag filled with air, sometimes composed of one, sometimes of two, and sometimes of three divisions, situated towards the back of the fish, and opening into the maw or the gullet. Those who contend that this bag is designed for raising or depressing the fish in the water, build upon the following experiment. A carp being put into the air-pump, and the air exhausted, the bladder is said to expand itself to such a degree, that the fish swells in an extraordinary manner till the bladder bursts, and then the fish sinks and ever after continues to crawl at the bottom. On another occasion, the air-bladder was pricked and wounded, which let out its air: upon which the fish sunk to the bottom, and was not seen to rise after. From thence it is inferred, that the use of the air-bladder must be by swelling, at the will of the animal, thus to increase the surface of the fish's body, and thence diminishing its specific gravity, to enable it to rise to the top of the water, and keep there at pleasure. On the contrary, when the fish wants to descend, it is, say they, but to exhaust this bladder of its air; and the fish being thus rendered slimmer and heavier, consequently sinks to the bottom.

Such is the account given of the use of the air-bladder, no part of which seems to me well supported. In the first place, though nothing is more certain than that a carp put into the air-pump will swell, yet so will a mouse or a frog, and these we know to have no air-bladders. A carp will rise to the surface; but so will all fish that want air, whether they have an air-bladder or not. The air-bladder is said to burst in the experiment, but that I deny. The air-bladder is indeed found empty, but it has suffered no laceration, and may be distended by being blown into, like any other bladder that is sound. The fish, after the experiment, I grant, continues to creep at

the bottom; and so will all fish that are sick and wounded, which must be the case with this after such an operation. Thus these facts prove nothing, but that, when the fish is killed in an air-pump, the air-bladder is found exhausted; and that it will naturally and necessarily be; for the drain of air by which the fish is supplied in the natural way, will necessarily oblige it to make use of all its hidden stores; and as there is a communication between the gullet and the air-bladder, the air which the latter contains will thus be obviously drawn away. But still farther, how comes the air-bladder, according to their hypothesis, to swell under the experiment of the air-pump? What is it that closes the aperture of that organ in such a manner as at last to burst it; or what necessity has the fish for dilating it to that violent degree? At most, it only wants to rise to the surface; and that the fish can easily do without so great a distension of the air-bladder. Indeed it should rather seem, that the more the air was wanted without, the less necessity there was for its being uselessly accumulated within; and to make the modern system consistent, the fish under the air-pump, instead of permitting its bladder to be burst, would readily give up its contents, which, upon their supposition, all can do at pleasure.

But the truth is, the fish can neither increase nor diminish the quantity of air in its air-bladder at will, no more than we can that which is contained in our stomachs. The animal has no one muscle, much less a pair of muscles, for contracting or dilating this organ: its aperture is from the gullet, and what air is put into it must remain there, till the necessities, and not the will, of the animal call it forth as a supply.

But to put the matter past a doubt, many fish are furnished with an air-bladder that continually crawl

at the bottom, such as the eel and the flounder; and many more are entirely without any bladder, that swim at ease in every depth, such as the anchovy and fresh-water gudgeon.* Indeed, the number of fish that want this organ is alone sufficient proof that it is not so necessary for the purposes of swimming; and as the ventral fins, which in all fish lie flat upon the water, seem fully sufficient to keep them at all depths, I see no great occasion for this internal philosophical apparatus for raising and depressing them. Upon the whole, the air-bladder seems adapted for different purposes than that of keeping the fish at different depths in the water; but whether it be to supply them with air when it is wanted from without, or for what other purpose, I will not take upon me to determine.

Hitherto we have seen fish in every respect inferior to land animals; in the simplicity of their conformation, in their senses, and their enjoyments; but of that humble existence which they have been granted by nature, they have a longer term than any other class of animated nature. "Most of the disorders incident to mankind," says Bacon, "arise from the changes and alterations of the atmosphere; but fishes reside in an element little subject to change; theirs is an uniform existence; their movements are without effort, and their life without labour. Their bones also, which are united by cartilages, admit of indefinite extension; and the different sizes of animals of the same kind among fishes are very various. They still keep growing; their bodies, instead of suffering the rigidity of age, which is the cause of natural decay in land animals, still continue increasing with fresh supplies; and as the body grows, the conduits of life furnish their stores in greater abundance. How long a fish, that seems to have scarce

* Redi.

any bounds put to its growth, continues to live, is not ascertained; perhaps the life of a man would not be long enough to measure that of the smallest."

There have been two methods devised for determining the age of fishes, which are more ingenious than certain; the one is by the circles of the scales, the other, by the transverse section of the back-bone. The first method is this: When a fish's scale is examined through a microscope, it will be found to consist of a number of circles, one circle within another, in some measure resembling those which appear upon the transverse section of a tree, and supposed to offer the same information. For as in trees we can tell their age by the number of their circles, so in fishes we can tell theirs by the number of their circles in every scale, reckoning one ring for every year of the animal's existence. By this method, M. Buffon found a carp, whose scales he examined, to be not less than a hundred years old; a thing almost incredible, had we not several accounts in other authors which tend to confirm the discovery. Gesner brings us an instance of one of the same age, and Albertus of one more than double that period.

The age of the skate and the ray, that want scales, may be known by the other method; which is, by separating the joints of the back-bone, and then minutely observing the number of rings which the surface where it was joined exhibits. By this the fish's age is said to be known, and perhaps with as much certainty as in the former instance.

But how unsatisfactory soever these marks may be, we have no reason to doubt the great age of some fishes. Those that have ponds, often know the oldest by their superior size. But the longevity of these animals is nothing when compared to their fecundity. All sorts, a few of the larger ones excepted, multiply their kind, some by hundreds, and some by mil-

lions. There are some that bring forth their young alive, and some that only produce eggs; the former are rather the least fruitful, yet even these are seen to produce in great abundance. The viviparous blenny, for instance, brings forth two or three hundred at a time, all alive, and playing round the parent together. Those who exclude their progeny in a more imperfect state, and produce eggs which they are obliged to leave to chance, either on the bottom, at the edge of the water, or floating on the surface where it is deeper, are all much more prolific, and seem to proportion their stock to the danger there is of its consumption. Of these eggs thus deposited, scarce one in a hundred brings forth an animal; they are devoured by all the lesser fry that frequent the shores, by aquatic birds near the margin, and by the larger fish in deep water. Still, however, there are enough for supplying the deep with inhabitants; and, notwithstanding their own rapacity, and that of fowls of various tribes, the numbers that escape are sufficient to relieve the wants of a very considerable part of mankind. Indeed, when we consider the numbers that a single fish is capable of producing, the amount will seem astonishing. If, for instance, we should be told of a being so very prolific, that in a single season it could bring forth as many of its kind as there are inhabitants in England, it would strike us with surprise; yet a single cod produces full that number. The cod spawns in one season, as Lewenhoeck assures us, above nine million of eggs or peas contained in one single roe. The flounder is commonly known to produce above one million; and the mackerel above five hundred thousand. Such an amazing increase, if permitted to come to maturity, would overstock nature, and even the ocean itself would not be able to contain, much less to provide for the half of its inhabitants. But two wise pur-

poses are answered by this amazing increase; it preserves the species in the midst of numberless enemies, and serves to furnish the rest with a sustenance adapted to their nature.

Fishes seem, all except the whale kind, entirely divested of those parental solitudes which so strongly mark the manners of the more perfect terrestrial animals. How far they copulate, remains as yet a doubt; for though they seem to join, yet the male is not furnished with any external instrument of generation. It is said by some, that his only end in that action is to emit his impregnating milt upon the eggs that at that time fall from the female. He is said to be seen pursuing them as they float down the stream, and carefully impregnating them one after another. On some occasions also the females dig holes in the bottom of rivers and ponds, and there deposit their spawn, which is impregnated by the male in the same manner. All this, however, is very doubtful: what we know with certainty of the matter, and that not discovered till very lately, is, that the male has two organs of generation that open into the bladder of urine, and that these organs do not open into the rectum as in birds, but have a particular aperture of their own.* These organs of generation in the male are empty at some seasons of the year; but before the time of spawning they are turgid with what is called the milt, and emit the fluid proper for impregnation.

Fish have different seasons for depositing their spawn: some, that live in the depths of the ocean, are said to choose the winter months; but, in general, those with which we are acquainted choose the hottest months in summer, and prefer such water as is somewhat tepified by the beams of the sun. They then leave the deepest parts of the ocean, which are

* *Vide Gaman de Generatione Piscium.*

the coldest, and shoal round the coasts, or swim up the fresh water rivers, which are warm as they are comparatively shallow. When they have deposited their burdens, they then return to their old stations, and leave their nascent progeny to shift for themselves.

The spawn continues in its egg state in some fish longer than in others, and this in proportion to the animal's size. In the salmon, for instance, the young animal continues in the egg from the beginning of December till the beginning of April; the carp continues in the egg not above three weeks; the little gold-fish from China is produced still quicker. These all, when excluded, at first escape by their minuteness and agility. They rise, sink, and turn much readier than grown fish; and they can escape into very shallow waters when pursued. But, with all their advantages, scarcely one in a thousand survives the numerous perils of its youth. The very male and female that have given them birth, are equally dangerous and formidable with the rest, forgetting all relation at their departure.

Such is the general picture of these heedless and hungry creatures: but there are some in this class living in the waters, that are possessed of finer organs and higher sensations; that have all the tenderness of birds or quadrupeds for their young; that nurse them with constant care, and protect them from every injury. Of this class are the *Cetaceous* tribe, or the fishes of the whale kind. There are others, though not capable of nursing their young, yet that bring them alive into the world, and defend them with courage and activity. These are the *Cartilaginous* kinds, or those who have gristles instead of bones. But the fierce unmindful tribe we have been describing, that leave their spawn without any protection, are called the *Spinous* or bony

kinds, from their bones resembling the sharpness of thorns.

Thus there are three grand divisions in the fish kind; the *celaceous*, the *cartilaginous*, and the *spinous*; all differing from each other in their conformation, their appetites, in their bringing forth, and in the education of their young. These three great distinctions are not the capricious differences formed by a maker of systems, but are strongly and firmly marked in nature. These are the distinctions of Aristotle; and they have been adopted by mankind ever since his time. It will be necessary, therefore, to give the history of each of these in particular; and then to range, under each head, those fishes whose history is the most remarkable, or, more properly speaking, those of which we have any history. For we shall find, when we come to any of the species in particular, how little can be said of their habits, their stations, or method of propagation.

Much, indeed, can be said of them, if considered relatively to man; and large books have been written of the manner of taking fish, or of dressing them. Apicius is noted for having first taught mankind to suffocate fish in Carthaginian pickle, and Quin for giving a sauce to the Johndory; Mrs. Glasse is famous for the eel-pie, and Mr. Tull for his invention of spaying carp to give it a finer flavour. In this manner our cooks handle the subject. On the other hand, our physicians assure us that the flesh of fishes yields little nourishment, and soon corrupts; that it abounds in a gross sort of oil and water, and hath but very few volatile particles, which renders it less fit to be converted into the substance of our bodies. They are cold and moist, and must needs, say they, produce juices of the same kind, and consequently are improper to strengthen the body. In this diversity of opinion, it is the wisest way to eat our fish in

the ordinary manner, and pay no great attention to cooks or doctors.

I cannot conclude this chapter without putting a question to the learned, which, I confess, I am not able to resolve. How comes it that fish, which are bred in a salt element, have yet no salt to the taste, or that is capable of being extracted from them?

CHAPTER II.

OF CETACEOUS FISHES IN GENERAL.

As on land there are some orders of animals that seem formed to command the rest, with greater powers and more various instincts, so in the ocean there are fishes which seem formed upon a nobler plan than others, and that, to their fishy form, join the appetites and the conformation of quadrupeds. These are all of the *cetaceous* kind; and so much raised above their fellows of the deep, in their appetites and instincts, that almost all our modern naturalists have fairly excluded them from the finny tribes, and will have them called, not fishes, but great beasts of the ocean. With them, it would be as improper to say men go to Greenland fishing for whale, as it would be to say that a sportsman goes to Blackwall a-fowling for mackerel.

Yet, notwithstanding philosophers, mankind will always have their own way of talking; and, for my own part, I think them here in the right. A different formation of the lungs, stomach, and intestines, a different manner of breathing or propagating, are not sufficient to counterbalance the great obvious analogy which these animals bear to the whole finny tribe. They are shaped as other fishes; they swim with fins:

they are entirely naked, without hair; they live in the water, though they come up to breathe: they are only seen in the depths of the ocean, and never come upon shore but when forced thither. These sure are sufficient to plead in favour of the general denomination, and acquit mankind of error in ranking them with their lower companions of the deep.

But still they are as many degrees raised above other fishes in their nature, as they are in general in their size. This tribe is composed of the Whale and its varieties, of the Cachalot, the Dolphin, the Grampus, and the Porpoise. All these resemble quadrupeds in their internal structure, and in some of their appetites and affections. Like quadrupeds, they have lungs, a midriff, a stomach, intestines, liver, spleen, bladder, and parts of generation: their heart also resembles that of quadrupeds, with its partitions closed up as in them, and driving red and warm blood in circulation through the body. In short, every internal part bears a most striking similitude; and to keep these parts warm, the whole kind are also covered between the skin and the muscles with a thick coat of fat or blubber, which, like the bacon-fat of a hog, keeps out the cold, renders their muscles glib and pliant, and probably makes them lighter in swimming.

As these animals breathe the air, it is obvious that they cannot bear to be any long time under water. They are constrained, therefore, every two or three minutes to come up to the surface to take breath, as well as to spout out through their nostril, for they have but one, that water which they sucked in while gaping for their prey. This conduit, by which they breathe, and also throw out the water, is placed in the head, a little before the brain. Though externally the hole is but single, it is internally divided by a bony partition, which is closed by a sphincter mus-

cle on the inside, that, like the mouth of a purse, shuts it up at the pleasure of the animal. There is also another muscle or valve, which prevents the water from going down the gullet. When therefore the animal takes in a certain quantity of water, which is necessary to be discharged and separated from its food, it shuts the mouth, closes the valve of the stomach, opens the sphincter that kept the nostril closed, and then breathing strongly from the lungs, pushes the water out by the effort, as we see it rise by the pressure of air in a fire-engine.

The senses of these animals seem also superior to those of other fishes. The eyes of other fishes, we have observed, are covered only with that transparent skin that covers the rest of the head; but in all the cetaceous kinds it is covered by eye-lids, as in man. This, no doubt, keeps that organ in a more perfect state, by giving it intervals of relaxation, in which all vision is suspended. The other fishes, that are for ever staring, must see, if for no other reason, more feebly, as their organs of sight are always exerted.

As for hearing, these also are furnished with the internal instruments of the ear, although the external orifice no where appears. It is most probable that this orifice may open by some canal, resembling the Eustachian tube, into the mouth; but this has not as yet been discovered.

Yet nature sure has not thus formed a complete apparatus for hearing, and denied the animal the use of it when formed. It is most likely that all animals of the cetaceous kind can hear, as they certainly utter sounds, and bellow to each other. This vocal power would be as needless to animals naturally deaf, as glasses to a man that was blind.

But it is in the circumstances in which they continue their kind, that these animals show an eminent

superiority. Other fish deposit their spawn, and leave the success to accident; these never produce above one young, or two at the most; and this the female suckles entirely in the manner of quadrupeds, her breasts being placed, as in the human kind, above the navel. We have read many fabulous accounts of the nursing of the demi-gods of antiquity, of their feeding on the marrow of lions, and their being suckled by wolves; one might imagine a still more heroic system of nutrition, if we supposed that the young hero was suckled and grew strong upon the breast-milk of a she-whale!

The whale or the grampus are terrible at any time, but are fierce and desperate in the defence of their young. In Waller's beautiful poem of the Summer Islands, we have a story, founded upon fact, which shows the maternal tenderness of these animals for their offspring. A whale and her cub had got into an arm of the sea, where, by the desertion of the tide, they were enclosed on every side. The people from shore soon saw their situation, and drove down upon them in boats, with such weapons as the urgent occasion offered. The two animals were soon wounded in several places, and the whole sea round was tintured with their blood. The whales made several attempts to escape; and at last the old one, by its superior strength, forced over the shallow into the depths of the ocean. But though in safety herself, she could not bear the danger that awaited her young one; she therefore rushed in once more where the smaller animal was imprisoned, and resolved, when she could not protect, at least to share its danger.—The story ends with poetical justice; for the tide coming in, brought off both in safety from their enemies, though not without sustaining an infinite number of wounds in every part.

As to the rest, the distinctive marks of this tribe

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Thalassoma *Walleri* *g. Mottled* *on* *the* *Walleri*

are, that the number of their fins never exceed three; namely, two pectoral fins, and one back fin; but in some sorts the last is wanting. These fins differ very much from those of other fishes, which are formed of straight spines: the fins of the cetaceous tribe are made up of bones and muscles; and the skeleton of one of their fins very much resembles the skeleton of a man's hand. Their tails also are different from those of all other fish; they are placed so as to lie flat on the surface of the water; while the other kinds have them, as we every day see, upright or edgewise. This flat position of the tail in cetaceous animals, enables them to force themselves suddenly to the surface of the water to breathe, which they are continually constrained to do.

Of these enormous animals some are without teeth, and properly called whales; others have the teeth only in the lower jaw, and are called, by the French, cachalots; the narwhal has teeth only in the upper jaw; the dolphin's teeth, as well as those of the porpoise and grampus, are both above and below. These are the marks that serve to distinguish the kinds of this enormous tribe from each other, and these shall serve to guide us in giving their history.

CHAPTER III.

OF THE WHALE, PROPERLY SO CALLED, AND ITS VARIETIES.

If we compare land animals, in respect to magnitude, with those of the deep, they will appear contemptible in the competition. It is probable, indeed, that quadrupeds once existed much larger than we

find them at present. From the skeletons of some that have been dug up at different times it is evident, that there must have been terrestrial animals twice as large as the elephant; but creatures of such an immense bulk required a proportionable extent of ground for subsistence, and, by being rivals with men for large territory, they must have been destroyed in the contest.

But it is not only upon land that man has exerted his power of destroying the larger tribes of animated nature; he has extended his efforts even in the midst of the ocean, and has cut off numbers of those enormous animals that had perhaps existed for ages. We now no longer hear of whales two hundred and two hundred and fifty feet long, which we are certain were often seen about two centuries ago. They have all been destroyed by the skill of mankind, and the species is now dwindled into a race of diminutive animals, from thirty to about eighty feet long.

The northern seas were once the region to which the greatest of these animals resorted, but so great has been the slaughter of whales for more than two ages, that they begin to grow thinner every day, and those that are found there seem, from their size, not come to their full dimensions. The greatest whales resort to places where they have the least disturbance; to those seas that are on the opposite side of the globe, near the south pole. In that part of the world there are still to be seen whales that are above a hundred and sixty feet long; and perhaps even longer might be found in those latitudes near the south pole, to which we have not as yet ventured.

Taking the whale, however, at the ordinary size of eighty feet long and twenty feet high, what an enormous animated mass must it appear to the spectator! With what amazement must it strike him to behold so great a creature gambolling in the deep

with the ease and agility of the smallest animal, and making its way with incredible swiftness! This is a sight which is very common to those who frequent the northern or southern ocean. Yet, though this be wonderful, perhaps still greater wonders are concealed in the deep, which we have not had opportunities of exploring. These large animals are obliged to show themselves in order to take breath; but who knows the size of those that are fitted to remain for ever under water, and that have been increasing in magnitude for centuries? To believe all that has been said of the sea serpent, or the Kraken, would be credulity; to reject the possibility of their existence, would be presumption.

The whale is the largest animal of which we have any certain information, and the various purposes to which, when taken, its different parts are converted, have brought us tolerably acquainted with its history. Of the whale, properly so called, there are no less than seven different kinds, all distinguished from each other by their external figure or internal conformation. The Great Greenland Whale, without a back-fin, and black on the back; the Iceland Whale, without a back-fin, and whitish on the back; the New England Whale, with a hump on the back; the Whale, with six humps on the back; the Fin fish, with a fin on the back near the tail; the Pike-headed Whale, and the Round-lipped Whale. All these differ from each other in figure, as their names obviously imply. They differ also in their manner of living; the fin-fish having a larger swallow than the rest, being more active, slender, and fierce, and living chiefly upon herrings. However, they are none of them very voracious; and if compared to the Cachalot, that enormous tyrant of the deep, they appear harmless and gentle. The history of the rest, therefore, may be comprised under that of the great com-

mon Greenland whale, with which we are best acquainted.

The Great Greenland Whale is the fish for taking which there are such preparations made in different parts of Europe. It is a large heavy animal, and the head alone makes a third of its bulk. It is usually found from sixty to seventy feet long. The fins on each side are from five to eight feet, composed of bones and muscles, and sufficiently strong to give the great mass of body which they move, speed and activity. The tail, which lies flat on the water, is above twenty-four feet broad, and, when the fish lies on one side, its blow is tremendous. The skin is smooth and black, and in some places marbled with white and yellow, which running over the surface, has a very beautiful effect. This marbling is particularly observable in the fins and the tail. In the figures which are thus drawn by nature, fancy often forms the pictures of trees, landscapes, and houses. In the tail of one that was thus marbled, Ray tells us that the number 122 was figured very evenly and exact, as if done with a pencil.

The whale makes use only of the tail to advance itself forward in the water. This serves as a great oar to push its mass along; and it is surprising to see with what force and celerity its enormous bulk cuts through the ocean. The fins are only made use of for turning in the water, and giving a direction to the velocity impressed by the tail. The female also makes use of them when pursued to bear off her young, clapping them on her back, and supporting them by the fins on each side from falling.

The outward or scarf skin of the whale is no thicker than parchment; but this removed, the real skin appears, of about an inch thick, and covering the fat or blubber that lies beneath: this is from eight to twelve inches in thickness, and is, when the fish is

in health, of a beautiful yellow. The muscles lie beneath, and these, like the flesh of quadrupeds, are very red and tough.

The cleft of the mouth is above twenty feet long, which is near one third of the animal's whole length; and the upper jaw is furnished with barbs, that lie like the pipes of an organ, the greatest in the middle, and the smallest to the sides. These compose the whalebone, the longest spars of which are found to be not less than eighteen feet; the shortest, being of no value, are thrown away. The tongue is almost immoveably fixed to the lower jaw, seeming one great lump of fat; and in fact it fills several hogs-heads with blubber. The eyes are not larger than those of an ox; and when the crystalline humour is dried, it does not appear larger than a pea. They are placed towards the back of the head, being the most convenient situation for enabling them to see both before and behind, as also to see over them, where their food is principally found. They are guarded by eye-lids and eye-lashes, as in quadrupeds; and they seem to be very sharp-sighted.

Nor is their sense of hearing in less perfection, for they are warned at great distances of any danger preparing against them. It would seem as if nature had designedly given them these advantages, as they multiply little, in order to continue their kind. It is true, indeed, that the external organ of hearing is not perceptible, for this might only embarrass them in their natural element; but as soon as the thin scarf-skin above mentioned is removed, a black spot is discovered behind the eye, and under that is the auditory canal, that leads to a regular apparatus for hearing. In short, the animal hears the smallest sounds at very great distances, and at all times, except when it is spouting water, which is the time that the fishers approach to strike it.

These spout-holes or nostrils, in all the cetaceous tribe, have been already described: in this whale there are two, one on each side the head before the eyes, and crooked somewhat like the holes on the belly of a violin. From these holes this animal blows the water very fiercely, and with such a noise that it roars like a hollow wind, and may be heard at three miles distance. When wounded, it then blows more fiercely than ever, so that it sounds like the roaring of the sea in a great storm.

We have already observed, that the substance called whalebone is taken from the upper jaw of the animal, and is very different from the real bones of the whale. The real bones are hard, like those of great land animals, are very porous, and filled with marrow. Two great strong bones sustain the under lip, lying against each other in the shape of a half-moon; some of these are twenty feet long: they are seen in several gardens set up against each other, and are usually mistaken for the ribs of this animal.

Such is the general conformation and figure of this great inhabitant of the deep, the precise anatomy of which has not been yet ascertained. In those places where they are caught in greatest abundance, the sailors are not very curious as to the structure of the viscera; and few anatomists care to undertake a task, where the operator, instead of separating with a lancet, must cut his way with an axe. It is as yet doubted, therefore, whether the whale, that in most points internally resembles a quadruped, may not have one great bowel fitted entirely for the reception of air, to supply it when constrained to keep longer than usual at the bottom. The sailors universally affirm that it has; and philosophers have nothing but the analogy of its parts to oppose to their general assertions.

As these animals resemble quadrupeds in conformation, so they bear a strong resemblance in some of their appetites and manners. The female joins with the male, as is asserted, *more humano*, and once in two years feels the accesses of desire.

Their fidelity to each other exceeds whatever we are told of even the constancy of birds. Some fishers, as Anderson informs us, having struck one of two whales, a male and a female, that were in company together, the wounded fish made a long and a terrible resistance: it struck down a boat with three men in it, with a single blow of the tail, by which all went to the bottom. The other still attended its companion, and lent it every assistance, till at last the fish that was struck sunk under the number of its wounds, while its faithful associate, disdaining to survive the loss, with great bellowing stretched itself upon the dead fish, and shared its fate.

The whale goes with young nine or ten months, and is then fatter than usual, particularly when near the time of bringing forth. It is said that the embryo, when first perceptible, is about seventeen inches long, and white; but the cub, when excluded, is black, and about ten feet long. She generally produces one young one, and never above two. When she suckles her young, she throws herself on one side on the surface of the sea, and the young one attaches itself to the teat. The breasts are two, generally hid within the belly; but she can produce them at pleasure, so as to stand forward a foot and a half or two feet; and the teats are like those of a cow. In some the breasts are white; in others speckled; in all filled with a large quantity of milk, resembling that of land animals.

Nothing can exceed the tenderness of the female for her offspring; she carries it with her wherever she goes, and, when hardest pursued, keeps it sup-

ported between her fins. Even when wounded, she still clasps her young one; and when she plunges to avoid danger, takes it to the bottom, but rises sooner than usual, to give it breath again.

The young ones continue at the breast for a year, during which time they are called by the sailors *short-heads*. They are then extremely fat, and yield above fifty barrels of blubber. The mother, at the same time, is equally lean and emaciated. At the age of two years they are called *stunts*, as they do not thrive much immediately after quitting the breast; they then scarce yield above twenty, or twenty-four barrels of blubber: from that time forward they are called *skull-fish*, and their age is wholly unknown.

Every species of whale propagates only with those of its own kind, and does not at all mingle with the rest: however, they are generally seen in shoals of different kinds together, and make their migrations in large companies from one ocean to another. They are a gregarious animal, which implies their want of mutual defence against the invasions of smaller, but more powerful fishes. It seems astonishing, therefore, how a shoal of these enormous animals find subsistence together, when it would seem that the supplying even one with food would require greater plenty than the ocean could furnish. To increase our wonder, we not only see them herding together, but usually find them fatter than any other animals of whatsoever element. We likewise know that they cannot swallow large fishes, as their throat is so narrow, that an animal larger than a herring could not enter. How then do they subsist and grow so fat? A small insect which is seen floating in those seas, and which Linnæus terms the *Medusa*, is sufficient for this supply. These insects are black, and of the size of a small bean, and are sometimes seen floating in clusters on the surface of the water. They

are of a round form, like snails in a box, but they have wings, which are so tender that it is scarcely possible to touch them without breaking. These serve rather for swimming than flying; and the little animal is called by the Icelanders the *Walfischoas*, which signifies the whale's provender. They have the taste of raw muscles, and have the smell of burnt sugar. These are the food of the whale, which it is seen to draw up in great numbers with its huge jaws, and to bruise between its barbs, which are always found with several of these sticking among them.

This is the simple food of the great Greenland whale; it pursues no other animal, leads an inoffensive life in its element, and is harmless in proportion to its strength to do mischief. There seems to be an analogy between its manners and those of the elephant. They are both the strongest and the largest animals in their respective elements; neither offer injury, but are terrible when provoked to resentment. The fin-fish indeed, in some measure differs from the great whale in this particular, as it subsists chiefly upon herrings, great shoals of which it is often seen driving before it. Yet even the swallow of this fish is not very large if compared to the cachalot tribe, and its ravages are but sports in comparison. The stomach and intestines of all these animals, when opened, seldom have any thing in them except a soft unctuous substance, of a brownish colour; and their excrements are of a shining red.

As the whale is an inoffensive animal, it is not to be wondered that it has many enemies, willing to take advantage of its disposition and inaptitude for combat. There is a small animal, of the shell-fish kind, called the Whale-louse, that sticks to its body, as we see shells sticking to the foul bottom of a ship. This insinuates itself chiefly under the fins; and

whatever efforts the great animal makes, it still keeps its hold, and lives upon the fat, which it is provided with instruments to arrive at.

The sword-fish, however, is the whale's most terrible enemy. "At the sight of this little animal," says Anderson, "the whale seems agitated in an extraordinary manner, leaping from the water as if with affright: wherever it appears, the whale perceives it at a distance, and flies from it in the opposite direction. I have been myself," continues he, "a spectator of their terrible encounter. The whale has no instrument of defence except the tail: with that it endeavours to strike the enemy; and a single blow taking place would effectually destroy its adversary: but the sword-fish is as active as the other is strong, and easily avoids the stroke; then bounding into the air, it falls upon its great subjacent enemy, and endeavours not to pierce with its pointed beak, but to cut it with its toothed edges. The sea all about is soon dyed with blood, proceeding from the wounds of the whale; while the enormous animal vainly endeavours to reach its invader, and strikes with its tail against the surface of the water, making a report at each blow louder than the noise of a cannon."

There is still another and more powerful enemy, called by the fishermen of New England the *Killer*. This is itself a cetaceous animal, armed with strong and powerful teeth. A number of these are said to surround the whale, in the same manner as dogs get round a bull. Some attack it with their teeth behind, others attempt it before, until at last the great animal is torn down, and its tongue is said to be the only part they devour when they have made it their prey. They are said to be of such great strength, that one of them alone was known to stop a dead whale that several boats were towing along, and drag it from among them to the bottom.

But of all the enemies of these enormous fishes, man is the greatest: he alone destroys more in a year than the rest in an age, and actually has thinned their numbers in that part of the world where they are chiefly sought. The great resort of these animals was found to be on the inhospitable shores of Spitzenberg; where the distance of the voyage, the coldness of the climate, the terrors of the Icy Sea, and still more their own formidable bulk, might have been expected to protect them from human injury. But all these were but slight barriers against man's arts, his courage, and his necessities. The European ships, soon after the improvement of navigation, found the way into those seas, and as early as the beginning of the fourteenth century, the Biscayneers were in possession of a very considerable trade to the coasts of Greenland. The Dutch and the English followed them thither, and soon took that branch of commerce out of their hands. The English commenced the business about the beginning of the seventeenth century; and the town of Hull had the honour of first attempting that profitable branch of trade. But at present it seems upon the decline, as the quantity of fish are so greatly reduced by the constant capture for such a vast length of time. It is now said, that the fishers, from a defect of whales, apply themselves to the seal-fishery; yet, as these animals are extremely timorous, they will soon be induced to quit those shores where they meet such frequent disturbance and danger. The poor natives of Greenland themselves, who used to feed upon the whale, are diminishing in proportion as their sustenance is removed; and it is probable that the revolution of a few years will see that extensive coast totally deserted by its inhabitants, as it is already nearly deserted by the whales.

The art of taking whales, like most others, is

much improved by time, and differs in many respects from that practised by the Biscayneers when they first frequented the Icy Sea. But as the description of their methods is the least complicated, and consequently the easiest understood, it will be best suited to our purpose.

For this navigation, the Biscayneers, in favourable seasons, fitted out thirty ships, of two hundred and fifty tons each, with fifty choice men a-piece, and a few boys. These were stored with six months' provision; and each ship had its boats, which were to be serviceable when come to the place of duty. When arrived at the part where the whales are expected to pass to the southward, they always keep their sails set, and a sailor is placed at the mast-head to give information when he spies a whale. As soon as he discovers one, the whole crew are instantly in employment; they fit out their boats, and row away to where the whale was seen. The harpooner, who is to strike the fish, stands at the prow of the boat, with a harpoon or javelin in his hand, five or six feet long, pointed with steel like the barb of an arrow, of a triangular shape. As this person's place is that of the greatest dexterity, so also is it of the greatest danger: the whale sometimes overturns the boat with a blow of its tail, and sometimes drives against it with fury. In general, however, the animal seems to sleep on the surface of the water: while the boat is approaching, the harpooner stands aloft, and, with his harpoon tied to a cord of several hundred fathoms length, darts it into the animal and then rows as fast as possible away. It is some time before the whale seems to feel the blow; the instrument has usually pierced no deeper than the fat, and that being insensible, the animal continues for a while motionless; but soon roused from its seeming lethargy, as the shaft continues to pierce deeper and

deeper into the muscular flesh, it flies off with amazing rapidity. In the mean time, the harpoon sticks in its side; while the rope which is coiled up in the boat, and runs upon a swivel, lengthens as the whale recedes, but still shows the part of the deep to which it has retreated. The cord is coiled up with great care: for such is the rapidity with which it runs off, that if it was but in the least checked, as it yields with the animal's retreat, it would infallibly upset the boat, and the crew would go to the bottom. It sometimes happens also, that the rapidity with which it runs over the swivel at the edge of the boat, heats it, and it would infallibly take fire, did not a man stand continually with a wet mop in his hand to cool the swivel as the cord runs. The whale having dived to a considerable depth, remains at the bottom, sometimes for near half an hour, with the harpoon in its body, and then rises to take breath, expecting the danger over; but the instant it appears, they are all with their boats ready to receive it and fling their harpoons into its body: the animal again dives and again rises, while they repeat their blows. The ship follows in full sail, like all the rest, never losing sight of the boats, and ready to lend them assistance; the whole ocean seems dyed in blood. Thus they renew their attack, till the whale begins to be quite enfeebled and spent, when they plunge their longer spears into various parts of its body, and the enormous animal expires. When it is dead, to prevent it from sinking, they tie it with a strong iron chain to the boat, and either cut it up in pieces, and carry it home in that manner, or extract the oil from the blubber on ship-board.

Such is the manner in which these fish were taken in the beginning; but succeeding arts have improved the method, and the harpoon is now thrown by, a machine being used which inflicts a deeper

wound, and strikes the animal with much greater certainty. There are better methods for extracting the oil; and more proper machines for cutting the animal up, than were used in the early fisheries. But as an account of this belongs to the history of art and not of nature, we must be contented with observing, that several parts of this animal and all but the intestines and bones, are turned to very good account; not only the oil, but the greaves from which it is separated. The barbs also were an article of great profit; but have sunk in their price since women no longer use them to swell out their petticoats with whalebone. The flesh of this animal is also a dainty to some nations, and even the French seamen are now and then found to dress and use it as their ordinary diet at sea. It is said by the English and Dutch sailors to be hard and ill-tasted, but the French assert the contrary; and the savages of Greenland, as well as those near the south pole, are fond of it to distraction. They eat the flesh, and drink the oil, which is a first rate delicacy. The finding a dead whale is an adventure considered among the fortunate circumstances of their wretched lives. They make their abode beside it; and seldom remove till they have left nothing but the bones.

Jacobson, whom we quoted before in the History of Birds, where he describes his countrymen of the island of Feroe as living a part of the year upon salted gulls, tells us also, that they are very fond of salted whale's flesh. The fat of the head they season with bay salt, and then hang it up to dry in the chimney. He thinks it tastes as well as fat bacon; and the lean, which they boil, is in his opinion, not inferior to beef.—I fancy poor Jacobson would make but an indifferent taster at one of our city feasts!

CHAPTER IV.

OF THE NARWHAL.

FROM whales that entirely want teeth, we come to such as have them in the upper jaw only; and in this class there is found but one, the Narwhal, or Sea-Unicorn. This fish is not so large as the whale, not being above sixty feet long. Its body is slenderer than that of the whale, and its fat not in so great abundance. But this great animal is sufficiently distinguished from all others of the deep by its tooth or teeth, which stand pointing directly forward from the upper jaw, and are from nine to fourteen feet long. In all the variety of weapons with which nature has armed her various tribes, there is not one so large or so formidable as this. This terrible weapon is generally found single, and some are of opinion that the animal is furnished but with one by nature; but there is at present the skull of a narwhal at the stadthouse at Amsterdam with two teeth, which plainly proves that in some animals at least this instrument is double. It is even a doubt, whether it may not be so in all, and that the narwhal's wanting a tooth is only an accident which it has met with in the encounters it is obliged daily to be engaged in. Yet it must be owned of those that are taken only with one tooth, that there seems no socket, nor no remains of any other upon the opposite side of the jaw, but all is plain and even. However this be, the tooth, or as some are pleased to call it, the horn of the narwhal, is the most terrible of all natural instruments of destruction. It is as straight as an arrow, about the thickness of the small of a man's leg, wreathed in the manner we sometimes see twisted bars of iron; it tapers to a

sharp point; and is whiter, heavier, and harder than ivory. It is generally seen to spring from the left side of the head directly forward in a straight line with the body; and its root enters into the socket above a foot and a half. In a skull to be seen at Hamburg there are two teeth, which are each above seven feet long, and are eight inches in circumference. When the animal possessed of these formidable weapons is urged to employ them, it drives directly forward against the enemy with its teeth, that like protended spears, pierce whatever stands before them.

The extreme length of these instruments have induced some to consider them rather as horns than teeth, but they in every respect resemble the tusks of the boar and the elephant. They grow, as in them, from sockets in the upper jaw; they have the solidity of the hardest bone, and far surpass ivory in all its qualities. The same error has led others to suppose, that as among quadrupeds the female was often found without horns, so these instruments of defence were only to be found in the male; but this has been more than once refuted by actual experience; both sexes are found armed in this manner: the horn is sometimes found wreathed and sometimes smooth, sometimes a little bent and sometimes straight, but always strong, deeply fixed, and sharply pointed.

Yet notwithstanding all these appointments for combat, these long and pointed tusks, amazing strength, and unmatchable celerity, the narwhal is one of the most harmless and peaceable inhabitants of the ocean. It is seen constantly and inoffensively sporting among the other great monsters of the deep, no way attempting to injure them but pleased in their company. The Greenlanders call the narwhal the forerunner of the whale; for wherever it is seen the whale is shortly after sure to follow. This may arise

as well from the natural passion for society in these animals, as from both living upon the same food, which are the insects described in the preceding chapter. These powerful fishes make war upon no other living creature; and though furnished with instruments to spread general destruction, are as innocent and as peaceful as a drove of oxen. Nay, so regardless are they of their own weapons, and so utterly unmindful to keep them in repair for engagement, that they are constantly seen covered over with weeds, slough and all the filth of the sea; they seem rather considered as an impediment than a defence.

The manners and appetites both of the narwhal and the great whale are entirely similar; they both alike want teeth for chewing, and are obliged to live upon insects; they both are peaceable and harmless, and always rather fly than seek the combat. The narwhal, however, has a much narrower gape than the great whale, and therefore does not want the use of barbs to keep in its food when once sucked into the mouth. It is also much swifter, and would never be taken by the fishermen but for those very tusks, which at first appear to be its principal defence. These animals, as was said, being fond of living together, are always seen in herds of several at a time; and whenever they are attacked, they crowd together in such a manner that they are mutually embarrassed by their tusks. By these they are often locked together, and are prevented from sinking to the bottom. It seldom happens, therefore, but the fishermen make sure of one or two of the hindmost, which very well reward their trouble.

It is from the extraordinary circumstance of the teeth, therefore, that this fish demands a distinct history; and such has been the curiosity of mankind, and their desire to procure them, that a century ago

they were considered as the greatest rarity in the world. At that time the art of catching whales was not known, and mankind saw few, except such as were stranded on the coasts by accident. The tooth of the narwhal, therefore, was ascribed to a very different animal from that which really bore it. Among other fossil substances they were sometimes dug up; and the narwhal being utterly unknown, naturalists soon found a terrestrial owner. They were thought to be the horns of unicorns, an animal described by Pliny as resembling a horse, and with one straight horn darting forward from the middle of its forehead. These teeth were therefore considered as a strong testimony in favour of that historian's veracity, and were shown among the most precious remains of antiquity. Even for some time after the narwhal was known, the deceit was continued, as those who were possessed of a tooth sold it to great advantage. But at present they are too well known to deceive any, and are only shown for what they really are; their curiosity increasing in proportion to their weight and their size.

CHAPTER V.

OF THE CACHALOT AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE Cachalot, which has generally gone under the name of the Spermaceti Whale, till Mr. Pennant very properly made the distinction by borrowing its name from the French, has several teeth in the under jaw, but none in the upper. As there are no less than seven distinctions among whales, so also there are the same number of distinctions in the tribe we are describing. The cachalot with two fins and a

Blunt headed 'Aahahat' of 'Judyphon'



black back; the cachalot with two fins and a whitish back; that with a spout in the neck; that with a spout in the snout; that with three fins and sharp pointed teeth; that with three fins and sharp edged teeth; and, lastly, the cachalot with three fins and flatted teeth.

This tribe is not of such enormous size as the whale, properly so called, not being above sixty feet long, and sixteen feet high. In consequence of their being more slender, they are much more active than the common whale; they remain a longer time at the bottom, and afford a smaller quantity of oil. As in the common whale the head was seen to make a third part of its bulk, so in this species the head is so large as to make one-half of the whole. The tongue of this animal is small, but the throat is very formidable, and with very great ease it could swallow an ox. In the stomach of the whale scarcely any thing is to be found, but in that of the cachalot there are loads of fish of different kinds; some whole, some half digested, some small, and others eight or nine feet long. The cachalot is therefore as destructive among lesser fishes as the whale is harmless, and can at one gulp swallow a shoal of fishes down its enormous gullet. Linnæus tells us that this fish pursues and terrifies the dolphins and porpoises so much as often to drive them on shore.

But how formidable soever this fish may be to its fellows of the deep, it is by far the most valuable, and the most sought after by man, as it contains two very precious drugs, spermaceti and ambergris. The use of these, either for the purposes of luxury or medicine, is so universal, that the capture of this animal, that alone supplies them, turns out to very great advantage, particularly since the art has been found out of converting all the oil of this animal, as well as the brain, into that substance called spermaceti.

This substance, as it is naturally formed, is found in the head of the animal, and is no other than the brain. The outward skin of the head being taken off, a covering of fat offers about three inches thick; and under that, instead of a bony skull, the animal has only another thick skin, that serves for a covering and defence of the brain. The first cavity or chamber of the brain, is filled with that spermaceti which is supposed of the greatest purity and highest value. From this cavity there is generally drawn about seven barrels of the clearest spermaceti, that thrown upon water coagulates like cheese. Below this there is another chamber just over the gullet, which is about seven feet high; and this also contains the drug, but of less value. It is distributed in this cavity like honey in a hive, in small cells separated from each other by a membrane like the inner skin of an egg. In proportion as the oily substance is drawn away from this part, it fills anew from every part of the body; and from this is generally obtained about nine barrels of oil. Besides this, the spinal marrow, which is about as thick as a man's thigh, and reaches all along the back-bone to the tail, where it is not thicker than one's finger, affords no inconsiderable quantity.

This substance, which is used in the composition of many medicines rather to give them consistence than efficacy, was at first sold at a very high price, both from the many virtues ascribed to it, and the small quantity that the cachalot was capable of supplying: at present the price is greatly fallen; first, because its efficacy in medicine is found to be very small; and again, because the whole oil of the fish is very easily convertible into spermaceti. This is performed by boiling it with a ley of potash, and hardening it in the manner of soap. Candles are now made of it, which are substituted for wax, and

sold much cheaper; so that we need not fear having our spermaceti adulterated in the manner some medical books caution us to beware of, for they carefully guard us against having our spermaceti adulterated with virgin wax.

As to the ambergris, which is sometimes found in this whale, it was long considered as a substance found floating on the surface of the sea; but time that reveals the secrets of the mercenary, has discovered that it chiefly belongs to this animal. The name which has been improperly given to the former substance, seems more justly to belong to this, for the ambergris is found in the place where the seminal vessels are usually situated in other animals. It is found in a bag of three or four feet long, in round lumps, from one to twenty pounds weight, floating in a fluid rather thinner than oil, and of a yellowish colour. There are never seen more than four at a time in one of these bags; and that which weighed twenty pounds, and which was the largest ever seen, was found single. These balls of ambergris are not found in all fishes of this kind, but chiefly in the oldest and strongest. The uses of this medicine for the purposes of luxury and as a perfume are well known, though upon some subjects ignorance is preferable to information.*

[* As ambergris has not been found in any whales but such as are dead or sick, its production is generally supposed to be owing to disease, though some have a little too peremptorily affirmed it to be the cause of the morbid affection. No large piece having ever been found without a greater or less quantity of the beaks of the *sepia octopodia* (the common food of the spermaceti whale) interspersed throughout its substance: there can be little doubt of its originating in the intestines of the whale.—JURE's *Dictionary of Chemistry*.—AMBERGRIS.]

CHAPTER VI.

OF THE DOLPHIN, THE GRAMPUS, AND THE PORPOISE,
WITH THEIR VARIETIES.

ALL these fish have teeth, both in the upper and the lower jaw, and are much less than the whale. The Grampus, which is the largest, never exceeds twenty feet. It may also be distinguished by the flatness of its head, which resembles a boat turned upside down. The Porpoise resembles the grampus in most things except the snout, which is not above eight feet long; its snout also more resembles that of a hog. The Dolphin has a strong resemblance to the porpoise, except that its snout is longer and more pointed. They have all fins on the back; they all have heads very large, like the rest of the whale kind; and resemble each other in their appetites, their manners, and conformations, being equally voracious, active, and roving.

The great agility of these animals prevents their often being taken. They seldom remain a moment above water: sometimes, indeed, their too eager pursuits expose them to danger; and a shoal of herrings often allures them out of their depth. In such a case, the hungry animal continues to flounder in the shallows till knocked on the head, or till the returning tide seasonably comes to its relief. But all this tribe, and the dolphin in particular, are not less swift than destructive. No fish could escape them but from the awkward position of the mouth, which is placed in a manner under the head: yet even with these disadvantages, their depredations are so great that they have been justly styled the plunderers of the deep.

What could induce the ancients to a predilection

in favour of these animals, particularly the dolphin, it is not easy to account for. Historians and philosophers seem to have contended who should invent the greatest number of fables concerning them. The dolphin was celebrated in the earliest times for its fondness to the human race, and was distinguished by the epithets of the *boy-loving*, and *philanthropist*. Scarcely an accident could happen at sea, but the dolphin offered himself to convey the unfortunate to shore. The musician flung into the sea by pirates, the boy taking an airing into the midst of the sea, and returning again in safety, were obliged to the dolphin for its services. It is not easy I say, to assign a cause why the ancients should thus have invented so many fables in their favour. The figure of these animals is far from prejudicing us in their interest; their extreme rapacity tends still less to endear them: I know nothing that can reconcile them to man, and excite his prejudices, except that when taken they sometimes have a plaintive moan, with which they continue to express their pain till they expire. This, at first, might have excited human pity, and that might have produced affection. At present, these fishes are regarded even by the vulgar in a very different light: their appearance is far from being esteemed a favourable omen by the seamen; and from their boundings, springs, and frolics in the water, experience has taught the mariners to prepare for a storm.

But it is not to one circumstance only that the ancients have confined their fabulous reports concerning these animals; as from their leaps out of their element they assume a temporary curvature, which is by no means their natural figure in the water, the old painters and sculptors have universally drawn them wrong. A dolphin is scarcely ever exhibited by the ancients in a straight shape, but curv-

ed, in the position which they sometimes appear in when exerting their force; and the poets too have adopted the general error. Even Pliny, the best naturalist, has asserted, that they instantly die when taken out of the water; but Rondelet, on the contrary, assures us, that he has seen a dolphin carried alive from Montpellier to Lyons.

The moderns have more just notions of these animals, and have got over the many fables, which every day's experience contradicts. Indeed their numbers are so great, and, though shy, they are so often taken, that such peculiarities, if they were possessed of any, would have been long since ascertained. They are found, the porpoise especially, in such vast numbers, in all parts of the sea that surrounds this kingdom, that they are sometimes noxious to seamen, when they sail in small vessels. In some places they almost darken the water as they rise to take breath, and particularly before bad weather, are much agitated, swimming against the wind, and tumbling about with unusual violence.

Whether these motions be the gambols of pleasure, or the agitations of terror, is not well known. It is most probable that they dread those seasons of turbulence, when the lesser fishes shrink to the bottom, and their prey no longer offers in sufficient abundance. In times of fairer weather, they are seen herding together, and pursuing shoals of various fish with great impetuosity. Their method of hunting their game, if it may be so called, is to follow in a pack, and thus give each other mutual assistance. At that season, when the mackerel, the herring, the salmon, and other fish of passage, begin to make their appearance, the cetaceous tribes are seen fierce in the pursuit; urging their prey from one creek or bay to another, deterring them from the shallows, driving them towards each other's ambush,

and using a greater variety of arts than hounds are seen to exert in pursuing the hare. However, the porpoise not only seeks for prey near the surface, but often descends to the bottom in search of sand-eels and sea-worms, which it roots out of the sand with its nose, in the manner hogs harrow up the fields for food. For this purpose, the nose projects a little, is shorter and stronger than that of the dolphin; and the neck is furnished with very strong muscles, which enable it the readier to turn up the sand.

But it sometimes happens, that the impetuosity, or the hunger of these animals, in their usual pursuits, urges them beyond the limits of safety. The fishermen, who extend their long nets for pilchards on the coast of Cornwall, have sometimes an unwelcome capture in one of these. Their feeble nets, which are calculated only for taking smaller prey, suffer an universal laceration from the efforts of this strong animal to escape; and if it be not knocked on the head, before it has had time to flounder, the nets are destroyed, and the fishery interrupted. There is nothing, therefore, they so much dread as the entangling a porpoise; and they do every thing to intimidate the animal from approaching.

Indeed, these creatures are so violent in the pursuit of their prey, that they sometimes follow a shoal of small fishes up a fresh-water river, from whence they find no small difficulty to return. We have often seen them taken in the Thames at London, both above the bridges and below them. It is curious enough to observe with what activity they avoid their pursuers, and what little time they require to fetch breath above the water. The manner of killing them is for four or five boats to spread over the part of the river in which they are seen, and with fire-arms to shoot at them the instant they rise above

the water. The fish being thus for some time kept in agitation, requires to come to the surface at quicker intervals, and thus affords the marksmen more frequent opportunities.

When the porpoise is taken it becomes no inconsiderable capture, as it yields a very large quantity of oil: and the lean of some, particularly if the animal be young, is said to be as well tasted as veal. The inhabitants of Norway prepare, from the eggs found in the body of this fish, a kind of caviar, which is said to be very delicate sauce, or good when even eaten with bread. There is a fishery for porpoise along the Western Isles of Scotland during the summer season, when they abound on that shore; and this branch of industry turns to good advantage.

As for the rest, we are told that these animals go with young ten months; that, like the whale, they seldom bring forth above one at a time, and that in the midst of summer; that they live to a considerable age, though some say not above twenty-five or thirty years; and they sleep with the snout above water. They seem to possess, in a degree proportioned to their bulk, the manners of whales; and the history of one species of cetaceous animals will, in a great measure, serve for all the rest.

PART II.
OF CARTILAGINOUS FISHES.

CHAPTER I.

OF CARTILAGINOUS FISHES IN GENERAL.

WE have seen that fishes of the cetaceous kind bear a strong resemblance to quadrupeds in their conformation; those of the cartilaginous kinds are one remove separated from them; they form the shade that completes the imperceptible gradations of nature.

The first great distinction they exhibit is, in having cartilages or gristles instead of bones. The cetaceous tribes have their bones entirely resembling those of quadrupeds, thick, white, and filled with marrow; those of the spinous kind, on the contrary, have small slender bones; with points resembling thorns, and generally solid throughout. Fishes of the cartilaginous kinds have their bones always soft and yielding; and age, that hardens the bones of other animals, rather contributes still more to soften theirs. The size of all fishes increases with age; but from the pliancy of the bones in this tribe, they seem to have no bound placed to their dimensions; and it is supposed that they grow larger every day till they die.

They have other differences more obviously discernible. We have observed, that the cetaceous tribes had lungs like quadrupeds, a heart with its partition in the same manner, and an apparatus for

hearing: On the other hand we mentioned, that the spinous kinds had no organs of hearing, no lungs to breathe through, and no partition in the heart; but that their cold red blood was circulated by the means of the impulse made upon their gills by the water. Cartilaginous fishes unite both these systems in their conformation: like the cetaceous tribes they have organs of hearing, and lungs; like the spinous kinds they have gills, and a heart without a partition. Thus possessed of a twofold power of breathing, sometimes by means of their lungs, sometimes by that of their gills, they seem to unite all the advantages of which their situation is capable, and drawing from both elements every aid to their necessities or their enjoyments.

This double capacity of breathing in these animals, is one of the most remarkable features in the history of nature. The apertures by which they breathe are somewhere placed about the head; either beneath, as in flat fish; on the sides, as in sharks; or on the top of the head, as in pipe-fish. To these apertures are the gills affixed, but without any bone to open and shut them as in spinous fishes; from which, by this mark, they may be easily distinguished, though otherwise very much alike in appearance. From these are bending cylindrical ducts, that run to the lungs, and are supposed to convey the air that gives the organs their proper play. The heart, however, has but one valve; so that their blood wants that double circulation which obtains in the cetaceous kinds; and the lungs seem to me rather as an internal assistant to the gills, than fitted for supplying the same offices as in quadrupeds, for they want the pulmonary vein and artery.

From this structure, however, the animal is enabled to live a longer time out of water than those whose gills are more simple. The cartilaginous

shark, or ray, lives some hours after it is taken; while the spinous herring or mackerel expire a few minutes after they are brought on shore. From hence this tribe seems possessed of powers that other fishes are wholly deprived of; they can remain continually under water without ever taking breath, while they can venture their heads above the deep, and continue for hours out of their native element.

We observed in a former chapter, that spinous fishes have not or at least appear not to have, externally, any instruments of generation. It is very different with those of the cartilaginous kind, for the male always has these instruments double. The fish of this tribe are not unfrequently seen to copulate; and their manner is belly to belly, such as may naturally be expected from animals whose parts of generation are placed forward. They in general choose colder seasons and situations than other fish for propagating their kind, and many of them bring forth in the midst of winter.

The same duplicity of character which marks their general conformation, obtains also with regard to their manner of bringing forth. Some bring forth their young alive; and some bring forth eggs, which are afterwards brought to maturity. In all, however, the manner of gestation is nearly the same; for upon dissection it is ever found, that the young, while in the body, continue in the egg till a very little time before they are excluded: these eggs they may properly be said to hatch within their body; and as soon as their young quit the shell, they begin to quit the womb also. Unlike to quadupeds, or the cetaceous tribes, that quit the egg state a few days after their first conception, and continue in the womb several months after these continue in the body of the female in their egg state for weeks together; and the eggs are found linked together by a membrane, from

which, when the foetus gets free, it continues but a very short time till it delivers itself from its confinement in the womb. The eggs themselves consist of a white and a yolk, and have a substance, instead of shell, that aptly may be compared to softened horn. These, as I observed, are sometimes hatched in the womb, as in the shark and ray kinds; and they are sometimes excluded, as in the sturgeon, before the animal comes to its time of disengaging. Thus we see that there seems very little difference between the viviparous and the oviparous kinds, in this class of fishes; the one hatch their eggs in the womb, and the young continue no long time there; the others exclude their eggs before hatching, and leave it to time and accident to bring their young to maturity.

Such are the peculiar marks of the cartilaginous class of fishes, of which there are many kinds. To give a distinct description of every fish is as little my intention, as perhaps it is the wish of the reader: but the peculiarities of each kind deserve notice, and the most striking of these it would be unpardonable to omit.

Cartilaginous fish may be divided first into those of the shark kind with a body growing less towards the tail, a rough skin, with the mouth placed far beneath the end of the nose, five apertures on the sides of the neck for breathing, and the upper part of the tail longer than the lower. This class chiefly comprehends the Great White Shark, the Balance Fish, the Hound Fish, the Monk Fish, the Dog Fish, the Basking Shark, the *Zygæna*, the Tope, the Cat Fish, the Blue Shark, the Sea Fox, the Smooth Hound Fish, and the Porbeagle. These are all of the same nature, and differ more in size than in figure or conformation.

The next division is that of the flat fish; and these, their broad, flat, thin shape, is sufficiently capable





Great White Shark - Long tailed Shark

of distinguishing from all others of this kind. They may be easily distinguished also from spinous flat fish, by the holes through which they breathe, which are uncovered by a bone, and which, in this kind, are five on each side. In this tribe we may place the Torpedo, the Skate, the Sharp-nosed Ray, the Rough Ray, the Thornback, and the Fire-Flare.

The third division is that of the slender snake-shaped kind; such as the Lamprey, the Pride, and the Pipe Fish.

The fourth division is of the Sturgeon and its variety, the Isinglass Fish.

The last division may comprise fish of different figures and natures, that do not rank under the former divisions. These are the Sun Fish, the Tetradon, the Lump Fish, the Sea Snail, the Chimera, and the Fishing Frog. Each of these has somewhat peculiar in its powers or its form that deserves to be remarked. The description of the figures of these at least may compensate for our general ignorance of the rest of their history.

CHAPTER II.

OF CARTILAGINOUS FISHES OF THE SHARK KIND.

OF all the inhabitants of the deep, those of the shark kind are the fiercest and the most voracious. The smallest of this tribe is not less dreaded by greater fish, than many that to appearance seem more powerful; nor do any of them seem fearful of attacking animals far above their size. But the Great White Shark, which is the largest of the kind, joins to the most amazing rapidity the strongest appetites for mischief: as he approaches nearly in size

to the whale, he far surpasses him in strength and celerity, in the formidable arrangement of his teeth, and his insatiable desire of plunder.

The white shark is sometimes seen to rank even among whales for magnitude; and is found from twenty to thirty feet long. Some assert that they have seen them of four thousand pound weight; and we are told particularly of one, that had a human corps in its belly. The head is large, and somewhat flatted; the snout long, and the eyes large. The mouth is enormously wide, as is the throat, and capable of swallowing a man with great ease. But its furniture of teeth is still more terrible: of these there are six rows, extremely hard, sharp-pointed, and of a wedge-like figure. It is asserted that there are seventy-two in each jaw, which make one hundred and forty-four in the whole; yet others think that their number is uncertain, and that in proportion as the animal grows older, these terrible instruments of destruction are found to increase. With these the jaws both above and below appear planted all over; but the animal has a power of erecting or depressing them at pleasure. When the shark is at rest, they lie quite flat in his mouth; but when he prepares to seize his prey, he erects all this dreadful apparatus, by the help of a set of muscles that join them to the jaw; and the animal he seizes dies pierced with a hundred wounds in a moment.

Nor is this fish less terrible to behold as to the rest of his form: his fins are larger in proportion; he is furnished with great goggle eyes, that he turns with ease on every side, so as to see his prey behind him as well as before; and his whole aspect is marked with a character of malignity: his skin also is rough, hard, and prickly, being that substance which covers instrument-cases, called shagreen.

As the shark is thus formidable in his appearance,

so is he also dreadful from his courage and activity. No fish can swim so fast as he; none so constantly employed in swimming; he outstrips the swiftest ships, plays round them, darts out before them, returns, seems to gaze at the passengers, and all the while does not seem to exhibit the smallest symptoms of an effort to proceed. Such amazing powers, with such great appetites for destruction, would quickly unpeople even the ocean, but providentially the shark's upper jaw projects so far above the lower, that he is obliged to turn on one side (not on his back, as is generally supposed) to seize his prey. As this takes some small time to perform, the animal pursued, seizes that opportunity to make its escape.

Still however, the depredations he commits are frequent and formidable. The shark is the dread of sailors in all hot climates, where, like a greedy robber, he attends the ships, in expectation of what may drop over-board. A man who unfortunately falls into the sea at such a time, is sure to perish without mercy. A sailor that was bathing in the Mediterranean, near Antibes, in the year 1744, while he was swimming about fifty yards from the ship, perceived a monstrous fish making towards him and surveying him on every side, as fish are often seen to look round a bait. The poor man, struck with terror at its approach, cried out to his companions in the vessel to take him on board. They accordingly threw him a rope with the utmost expedition, and were drawing him up the ship's side, when the shark darted after him from the deep, and snapped off his leg.

Mr. Pennant tells us, that the master of a Guinea ship, finding a rage for suicide prevail among his slaves, from a notion the unhappy creatures had that after death they should be restored again to their families, friends, and country; to convince

them at least that some disgrace should attend them here, he ordered one of their dead bodies to be tied by the heels to a rope, and so let down into the sea; and though it was drawn up again with great swiftness, yet, in that short space, the sharks had bit off all but the feet. Whether this story is prior to an accident of the same kind, which happened at Belfast, in Ireland, about twenty years ago, I will not take upon me to determine; but certain it is, there are some circumstances alike in both, though more terrible in that I am going to relate. A Guinea captain was by stress of weather driven into the harbour of Belfast, with a lading of very sickly slaves, who in the manner above mentioned, took every opportunity to throw themselves overboard, when brought up upon the deck, as is usual, for the benefit of the fresh air. The captain perceiving, among others, a woman slave attempting to drown herself, pitched upon her as a proper example to the rest: as he supposed that they did not know the terrors attending death, he ordered the woman to be tied with a rope under the arm-pits, and so let down into the water. When the poor creature was thus plunged in, and about half way down, she was heard to give a terrible shriek, which at first was ascribed to her fears of drowning; but soon after, the water appearing red all round her, she was drawn up, and it was found that a shark, which had followed the ship, had bit her off from the middle.

Such is the frightful rapacity of this animal, nothing that has life is rejected. But it seems to have a peculiar enmity to man: when once it has tasted human flesh, it never desists from haunting those places where it expects a return of its prey.

It is even asserted, that along the coasts of Africa, where these animals are found in great abundance, numbers of the Negroes who are obliged to frequent

the waters are seized and devoured by them every year. The people of these coasts are firmly of opinion that the shark loves the black man's flesh in preference to the white; and that when men of different colours are in the water together, it always makes choice of the former.

However this be, men of all colours are equally afraid of this animal, and have contrived different methods to destroy him. In general they derive their success from the shark's own rapacity. The usual method of our sailors to take him is by baiting a great hook with a piece of beef or pork, which is thrown out into the sea by a strong cord, strengthened near the hook with an iron chain. Without this precaution, the shark would quickly bite the cord in two, and thus set himself free. It is no unpleasant amusement to observe this voracious animal coming up to survey the bait, particularly when not pressed by hunger. He approaches it, examines it, swims round it, seems for a while to neglect it, perhaps apprehensive of the cord and the chain: he quits it for a little; but his appetite pressing, he returns again, appears preparing to devour it, but quits it once more. When the sailors have sufficiently diverted themselves with his different evolutions, they then make a pretence, by drawing the rope, as if intending to take the bait away: it is then that the glutton's hunger excites him; he darts at the bait and swallows it, hook and all. Sometimes, however, he does not so entirely gorge the whole, but that he once more gets free; yet even then, though wounded and bleeding with the hook, he will again pursue the bait until he is taken. When he finds the hook lodged in his maw; his utmost efforts are then excited, but in vain, to get free; he tries with his teeth to cut the chain; he pulls with all his force to break the line; he almost seems to turn his stomach inside out, to disgorge the hook:

in this manner he continues his formidable though fruitless effort, till, quite spent, he suffers his head to be drawn above water, and the sailors confining his tail by a noose, in this manner draw him on ship board, and despatch him. This is done by beating him on the head till he dies; yet even that is not effected without difficulty and danger: the enormous creature, terrible even in the agonies of death, still struggles with his destroyers: nor is there an animal in the world that is harder to be killed. Even when cut in pieces, the muscles still preserve their motion, and vibrate for some minutes after being separated from the body. Another method of taking him, is by striking a barbed instrument, called a *fizgig*, into his body, as he brushes along by the side of the ship. As soon as he is taken up, to prevent his flouncing, they cut off the tail with an axe, with the utmost expedition.

This is the manner in which Europeans destroy the shark; but some of the Negroes along the African coast take a bolder and more dangerous method to combat their terrible enemy. Armed with nothing more than a knife, the Negro plunges into the water, where he sees the shark watching for his prey, and boldly swims forward to meet him: though the great animal does not come to provoke the combat, he does not avoid it, and suffers the man to approach him; but just as he turns upon his side to seize the aggressor, the Negro watches the opportunity, plunges his knife into the fish's belly, and pursues his blows with such success, that he lays the ravenous tyrant dead at the bottom: he soon however returns, fixes the fish's head in a noose, and drags him to shore, where he makes a noble feast for the adjacent villages.

Nor is man the only enemy this fish has to fear; the *Romora*, or Sucking Fish, is probably a still

greater, and follows the shark every where. This fish has got a power of adhering to whatever it sticks against, in the same manner as a cupping-glass sticks to the human body. It is by such an apparatus that this animal sticks to the shark, and drains away its moisture. The seamen, however, are of opinion, that it is seen to attend on the shark for more friendly purposes, to point him to his prey, and to apprize him of his danger. For this reason it has been called the shark's Pilot.

The shark so much resembles the whale in size, that some have injudiciously ranked it in the class of cetaceous fishes; but its real rank is in the place here assigned it among those of the cartilaginous kind. It breathes with gills and lungs, its bones are grisly, and it brings forth several living young: Belonius assures us, that he saw a female shark produce eleven live young ones at a time. But I will not take upon me to vouch for the veracity of Rondeletius, who, when talking of the blue shark, says, that the female will permit her small brood, when in danger, to swim down her mouth, and take shelter in her belly. Mr. Pennant, indeed, seems to give credit to the story, and thinks that this fish, like the opossum, may have a place fitted by nature for the reception of her young. To his opinion much deference is due, and it is sufficient at least to make us suspend our dissent, for nothing is so contemptible as that affectation of wisdom which some display by universal incredulity.

Upon the whole, a shark when living is a very formidable animal, and when dead is of very little value. The flesh is hardly digestible by any but the Negroes, who are fond of it to distraction: the liver affords three or four quarts of oil; some imaginary virtues have been ascribed to the brain; and its skin is by great labour polished into that substance called

shagreen. Mr. Pennant is of opinion that the female is larger than the male in all this tribe, which would, if confirmed by experience, make a striking agreement between them and birds of prey. It were to be wished that succeeding historians would examine into this observation, which is offered only as a conjecture.

CHAPTER III.

OF CARTILAGINOUS FLAT FISH, OR THE RAY KIND.

THE same rapacity which impels the shark along the surface of the water, actuates the flat fish at the bottom. Less active and less formidable, they creep in security along the bottom, seize every thing that comes in their way; neither the hardest shells nor the sharpest spines give protection to the animals that bear them; their insatiable hunger is such that they devour all, and the force of their stomach is so great that it easily digests them.

The whole of this kind resemble each other very strongly in their figure, nor is it easy without experience to distinguish one from another. The stranger to this dangerous tribe may imagine he is only handling a skate, when he is instantly struck numb by the torpedo; he may suppose he has caught a thornback, till he is stung by the fire-flare. It will be proper, therefore, after describing the general figure of these animals, to mark their differences.

All fish of the ray kind are broad, cartilaginous, swimming flat on the water, and having spines on different parts of their body, or at the tail. They all have their eyes and mouth placed quite under the body, with apertures for breathing either about or



1. Thornback 2. Torpedo 3. Sea Eagle 4. Saw-fish.

L. J. & C. D. R.

near them. They all have teeth, or a rough bone which answers the same purpose. Their bowels are very wide towards the mouth, and go on diminishing to the tail. The tail is very differently shaped from that of other fishes, and at first sight more resembling that of a quadruped, being narrow, and ending either in a bunch or a point. But what they are chiefly distinguished by is their spines or prickles, which the different species have on different parts of their body. Some are armed with spines both above and below, others have them on the upper part only; some have their spines at the tail; some have three rows of them, and others but one. These prickles in some are comparatively soft and feeble, those of others strong and piercing. The smallest of these spines are usually inclining towards the tail, the larger towards the head.

It is by the spines that these animals are distinguished from each other. The skate has the middle of the back rough, and a single row of spines on the tail. The sharp-nosed ray has ten spines, that are situated towards the middle of the back. The rough ray has its spines spread indiscriminately over the whole back. The thornback has its spines disposed in three rows upon the back. The fire-flare has but one spine, but that indeed a terrible one. This dangerous weapon is placed on the tail, about four inches from the body, and is not less than five inches long. It is of a flinty hardness, the sides thin, sharp pointed, and closely and sharply bearded the whole way. The last of this tribe that I shall mention is the torpedo, and this animal has no spines that can wound, but in the place of them it is possessed of one of the most potent and extraordinary faculties in nature.

Such are the principal differences that may enable us to distinguish animals, some of which are of

very great use to mankind, from others that are terrible and noxious. With respect to their uses, indeed, as we shall soon see, they differ much: but the similitude among them as to their nature, appetites, and conformation, is perfect and entire. They are all as voracious as they are plenty, and as dangerous to a stranger as useful to him who can distinguish their differences.

Of all the larger fish of the sea, these are the most numerous; and they owe their numbers to their size. Except the white shark and cachalot alone, there is no other fish that has a swallow large enough to take them in; and their spines make them a still more dangerous morsel. Yet the size of some is such that even the shark himself is unable to devour them: we have seen some of them in England weigh above two hundred pounds; but that is nothing to their enormous bulk in other parts of the world. Labat tells us of a prodigious ray that was speared by the Negroes at Guadaloupe, which was thirteen feet eight inches broad, and above ten feet from the snout to the insertion of the tail. The tail itself was in proportion, for it was not less than fifteen feet long; twenty inches broad at its insertion, and tapering to a point. The body was two feet in depth; the skin as thick as leather, and marked with spots; which spots, in all of this kind, are only glands, that supply a mucus to lubricate and soften the skin. This enormous fish was utterly unfit to be eaten by the Europeans; but the Negroes chose out some of the nicest bits, and carefully salted them up as a most favourite provision.

Yet large as this may seem, it is very probable that we have seen only the smallest of the kind: as they generally keep at the bottom, the largest of the kind are seldom seen; and as they may probably have been growing for ages, the extent of their magnitude

is unknown. It is generally supposed, however, that they are the largest inhabitants of the deep; and were we to credit the Norway Bishop, there are some above a mile over. But to suppose an animal of such magnitude is absurd; yet the over-stretching the supposition does not destroy the probability that animals of this tribe grow to an enormous size.

The ray generally chooses for its retreat such parts of the sea as have a black muddy bottom: the large ones keep at greater depths, but the smaller approach the shores, and feed upon whatever living animals they can surprise, or whatever putrid substances they meet with. As they are ravenous, they easily take the bait, yet will not touch it if it be taken up and kept a day or two out of water. Almost all fish appear much more delicate with regard to a baited hook than their ordinary food. They appear by their manner to perceive the line, and to dread it; but the impulse of their hunger is too great for their caution, and even though they perceive the danger, if thoroughly hungry they devour the destruction.

These fish generate in March and April, at which time only they are seen swimming near the surface of the water, several of the males pursuing one female. They adhere so fast together in coition, that the fishermen frequently draw up both together, though only one has been hooked. The females are prolific to an extreme degree, there having been no less than three hundred eggs taken out of the body of a single ray. These eggs are covered with a tough horny substance, which they acquire in the womb; for before they descend into that, they are attached to the ovary pretty much in the same manner as in the body of a pullet. From this ovary, or egg-bag as it is vulgarly called, the fish's eggs drop one by one into the womb, and there receive a shell by the

concretion of the fluids of that organ. When come to the proper maturity, they are excluded, but never above one or two at a time, and often at intervals of three or four hours. These eggs, or purses, as the fishermen call them, are usually cast about the beginning of May, and they continue casting during the whole summer. In October, when their breeding ceases, they are exceedingly poor and thin; but in November they begin to improve, and grow gradually better till May, when they are in the highest perfection.

It is chiefly during the winter season that our fishermen take them; but the Dutch, who are indefatigable, begin their operations earlier, and fish with better success than we. The method practised by the fishermen of Scarborough is thought to be the best among the English; and as Mr. Pennant has given a very succinct account of it, I will take leave to present it to the reader.

“ When they go out to fish, each person is provided with three lines; each man’s lines are fairly coiled upon a flat oblong piece of wicker work, the hooks being baited, and placed very regularly in the centre of the coil. Each line is furnished with two hundred and eighty hooks, at the distance of six feet two inches from each other. The hooks are fastened to lines of twisted horse hair, twenty-seven inches in length.

“ When fishing, there are always three men in each coble; and consequently nine of these lines are fastened together and used as one line, extending in length near three miles, and furnished with above two thousand five hundred hooks. An anchor and a buoy are fixed at the first end of the line, and one more at each end of each man’s lines: in all, four anchors and four buoys made of leather or cork. The line is always laid across the current. The

tides of flood and ebb continue an equal time upon our coast; and when undisturbed by winds, run each way about six hours. They are so rapid that the fishermen can only shoot and haul their lines at the turn of the tide; and therefore the lines always remain upon the ground about six hours. The same rapidity of tide prevents their using hand-lines; and therefore two of the people commonly wrap themselves in the sail, and sleep, while the other keeps a strict look-out, for fear of being run down by ships, and to observe the weather; for storms often rise so suddenly, that it is sometimes with extreme difficulty they escape to the shore, though they leave their lines behind them.

“ The coble is twenty feet six inches long, and five feet extreme breadth. It is about one ton burden, rowed with three pair of oars, and admirably constructed for the purpose of encountering a mountainous sea. They hoist sail when the wind suits.

“ The five-men-boat is forty feet long, fifteen broad, and twenty-five tons burden. It is so called, though navigated by six men and a boy, because one of the men is hired to cook, and does not share in the profits of the other five. All our able fishermen go in these boats to the herring-fishery at Yarmouth, the latter end of September; and return about the middle of November. The boats are then laid up until the beginning of Lent, at which time they go off in them to the edge of the Dogger, and other places, to fish for turbot, cod, ling, skate, &c. They always take two cobbles on board, and when they come upon their ground, anchor the boat, throw out the cobbles, and fish in the same manner as those do who go from the shore in a coble; with this difference only, that here each man is provided with double the quantity of lines, and, instead of waiting the return of the tide in the coble, return to

the boat and bait their other lines,—thus hauling one set, and shooting another, every turn of tide. They commonly run into the harbour twice a-week, to deliver their fish. The five-men-boat is decked at each end, but open in the middle, and has two long sails.

“ The best bait for all kinds of fish is fresh herring cut in pieces of a proper size; and notwithstanding what has been said to the contrary, they are taken there at any time in the winter, and all the spring, whenever the fishermen put down their nets for that purpose: the five-men-boats always take some nets for that end. Next to herrings are the lesser lampreys, which come all winter by land-carriage from Tadcaster. The next baits in esteem are small haddocks cut in pieces, sand-worms, muscles, and limpets; and lastly, when none of these can be found, they use bullock’s liver. The hooks used there are much smaller than those employed at Iceland and Newfoundland. Experience has shown that the larger fish will take a living small one upon the hook, sooner than any bait that can be put on; therefore they use such as the fish can swallow. The hooks are two inches and a half long in the shank, and near an inch wide between the shank and the point. The line is made of small cording, and is always tanned before it is used. All the rays and turbot are extremely delicate in their choice of baits; if a piece of herring or haddock has been twelve hours out of the sea, and then used as a bait, they will not touch it.”

Such is the manner of fishing for those fish that usually keep near the bottom on the coasts of England; and Duhamel observes, that the best weather for succeeding is a half calm, when the waves are just curled with a silent breeze.

But this extent of line, which runs, as we have

seen, three miles along the bottom, is nothing to what the Italians throw out in the Mediterranean. Their fishing is carried on in a tartan, which is a vessel much larger than ours; and they bait a line of no less than twenty miles long, with above ten or twelve thousand hooks. This line is called the *parasina*, and the fishing goes by that of the *pielago*. This line is not regularly drawn every six hours, as with us, but remains for some time in the sea; and it requires the space of twenty-four hours to take it up. By this apparatus they take rays, sharks, and other fish; some of which are above a thousand pounds weight. When they have caught any of this magnitude, they strike them through with an harpoon to bring them on board, and kill them as fast as they can.

This method of catching fish is obviously fatiguing and dangerous; but the value of the capture generally repays the pains. The skate and the thorn-back are very good food; and their size, which is from ten pounds to two hundred weight, very well rewards the trouble of fishing for them. But it sometimes happens that the lines are visited by very unwelcome intruders, by the rough-ray, the fire-flare, or the torpedo. To all these the fishermen have the most mortal antipathy, and when discovered, shudder at the sight; however, they are not always so much upon their guard, but that they sometimes feel the different resentments of this angry tribe, and, instead of a prize, find they have caught a vindictive enemy. When such is the case, they take care to throw them back into the sea with the swiftest expedition.

The rough-ray inflicts but slight wounds with the prickles with which its whole body is furnished. To the ignorant it seems harmless, and a man would at first sight venture to take it in his hand without

any apprehension; but he soon finds that there is not a single part of its body that is not armed with spines, and that there is no way of seizing the animal but by the little fin at the end of the tail.

But this animal is harmless when compared to the fire-flare, which seems to be the dread of even the boldest and most experienced fishermen. The weapon with which nature has armed this animal, which grows from the tail, and which we described as barbed and five inches long, hath been an instrument of terror to the ancient fishermen as well as the modern; and they have delivered many tremendous fables of its astonishing effects. Pliny, Ælian, and Oppian, have supplied it with a venom that affects even the inanimate creation; trees that are struck by it instantly lose their verdure; and rocks themselves are incapable of resisting the potent poison. The enchantress Circe armed her son with a spear headed with the spine of the trygon, as the most irresistible weapon she could furnish him with; a weapon that soon after was to be the death of his own father.

“That spears and darts,” says Mr. Pennant, “might in very early times have been headed with this bone. instead of iron, we have no doubt. The Americans head their arrows with the bones of fishes to this day; and from their hardness and sharpness, they are no contemptible weapons. But that this spine is possessed of those venomous qualities ascribed to it, we have every reason to doubt; though some men of high reputation, and the whole body of fishermen, contend for its venomous effects. It is, in fact, a weapon of offence belonging to this animal, and capable, from its barbs, of inflicting a very terrible wound, attended with dangerous symptoms; but it cannot be possessed of any poison, as the spine has no sheath to preserve the supposed

venom on its surface, and the animal has no gland that separates the noxious fluid: besides, all those animals that are furnished with envenomed fangs or stings, seem to have them strongly connected with their safety and existence; they never part with them; there is an apparatus of poison prepared in the body to accompany their exertions; and when the fangs or stings are taken away, the animal languishes and dies. But it is otherwise with the spine of the fire-flare: it is fixed to the tail as a quill is into the tail of the fowl, and is annually shed in the same manner; it may be necessary for the creature's defence, but it is no way necessary for its existence. The wound inflicted by an animal's tail has something terrible in the idea, and may from thence alone be supposed to be fatal. From hence terror might have added poison to the pain, and called up imagined dangers: the Negroes universally believe that the sting is poisonous, but they never die of the wound; for, by opening the fish, and laying it to the part injured, it effects a speedy cure. The slightness of the remedy proves the innocence of the wound.

The Torpedo is an animal of this kind, equally formidable and well known with the former; but the manner of its operating is to this hour a mystery to mankind. The body of this fish is almost circular, and thicker than others of the ray kind; the skin is soft, smooth, and of a yellowish colour, marked, as all the kind, with large annular spots; the eyes very small, the tail tapering to a point, and the weight of the fish from a quarter to fifteen pounds. Redi found one twenty-four pounds weight. To all outward appearance it is furnished with no extraordinary powers; it has no muscles formed for particularly great exertions, no internal conformation perceptibly differing from the rest of its kind: yet

such is that unaccountable power it possesses, that, the instant it is touched, it numbs not only the hand and arm, but sometimes also the whole body. The shock received, by all accounts, most resembles the stroke of an electrical machine,—sudden, tingling, and painful. “The instant,” says Kempfer, “I touched it with my hand, I felt a terrible numbness in my arm, and as far up as the shoulder. Even if one treads upon it with the shoe on, it affects not only the leg, but the whole thigh upwards. Those who touch it with the foot, are seized with a stronger palpitation than even those who touch it with the hand. This numbness bears no resemblance to that which we feel when a nerve is a long time pressed, and the foot is said to be asleep; it rather appears like a sudden vapour, which passing through the pores, in an instant penetrates to the very springs of life, from whence it diffuses itself over the whole body, and gives real pain. The nerves are so affected, that the person struck imagines all the bones of his body, and particularly those of the limb that received the blow are driven out of joint. All this is accompanied with an universal tremor, a sickness of the stomach, a general convulsion, and a total suspension of the faculties of the mind. In short,” continues Kempfer, “such is the pain, that all the force of our promises and authority could not prevail upon a seaman to undergo the shock a second time. A Negro, indeed, that was standing by, readily undertook to touch the torpedo, and was seen to handle it without feeling any of its effects. He informed us, that his whole secret consisted in keeping in his breath; and we found upon trial that this method answered with ourselves. When we held in our breath, the torpedo was harmless; but when we breathed ever so little, its efficacy took place.”

Kempfer has very well described the effects of

this animal's shock; but succeeding experience has abundantly convinced us, that holding in the breath no way guards against its violence. Those, therefore, who, depending on that receipt, should play with a torpedo, would soon find themselves painfully undeceived: not but that this fish may be many times touched with perfect security, for it is not upon every occasion that it exerts its potency. Reaumur, who made several trials upon this animal, has at least convinced the world that it is not necessarily, but by an effort that the torpedo numbs the hands of him that touches it. He tried several times, and could easily tell when the fish intended the stroke, and when it was about to continue harmless. Always before the fish intended the stroke, it flattened the back, raised the head and the tail, and then, by a violent contraction in the opposite direction, struck with its back against the pressing finger, and the body, which before was flat, became humped and round.

But we must not infer as he has done, that the whole effect of this animal's exertions arise from the greatness of the blow which the fingers receive at the instant they are struck. We will, with him, allow that the stroke is very powerful, equal to that of a musket-ball, since he will have it so; but it is very well known, that a blow, though never so great, on the points of the fingers, diffuses no numbness over the whole body: such a blow might break the ends of the fingers indeed, but would hardly numb the shoulder. Those blows that numb, must be applied immediately to some great and leading nerve, or to a large surface of the body: a powerful stroke applied to the points of the fingers will be excessively painful indeed, but the numbness will not reach beyond the fingers themselves. We must, therefore, look for another cause producing the powerful effects wrought by the torpedo.

Others have ascribed it to a tremulous motion which this animal is found to possess, somewhat resembling that of a horse's skin, when stung by a fly. This operating under the touch with an amazing quickness of vibration, they suppose produces the uneasy sensation described above—something similar to what we feel when we rub plush cloth against the grain. But the cause is quite disproportioned to the effect, and so much beyond our experience, that this solution is as difficult as the wonder we wish to explain.

The most probable solution seems to be, that the shock proceeds from an animal electricity, which this fish has some hidden power of storing up, and producing on its most urgent occasions. The shocks are entirely similar; the duration of the pain is the same: but how the animal contrives to renew the charge, how it is prevented from evaporating it on contiguous objects, how it is originally procured—these are difficulties that time alone can elucidate. But to know even the effects is wisdom. Certain it is, that the powers of this animal seem to decline with its vigor; for as its strength ceases, the force of the shock seems to diminish, till at last, when the fish is dead, the whole power is destroyed, and it may be handled or eaten with perfect security: on the contrary, when immediately taken out of the sea, its force is very great, and not only affects the hand, but if even touched with a stick, the person finds himself sometimes affected. This power, however is not to be extended to the degree that some would have us believe: as reaching the fishermen at the end of the line, or numbing fishes in the same pond. Godignus, in his History of Abyssinia, carries this quality to a most ridiculous excess: he tells us of one of these that was put into a basket among a number of dead fishes, and that the next morning the people,

to their utter astonishment, perceived, that the torpedo had actually numbed the dead fishes into life again.

To conclude, it is generally supposed that the female torpedo is much more powerful than the male. Lorenzini, who has made several experiments upon this animal, seems convinced that its power wholly resides in two thin muscles that cover a part of the back. These he calls the trembling fibres; and he asserts that the animal may be touched with safety in any other part. It is now known also, that there are more fish than this of the ray kind, possessed of the numbing quality, which has acquired them the name of the torpedo. These are described by Atkins and Moore, and found in great abundance along the coast of Africa. They are shaped like a mackerel, except that the head is much larger: the effects of these seem also to differ in some respects. Moore talks of keeping his hand upon the animal, which in the ray torpedo, it is actually impossible to do. "There was no man in the company," says he, "that could bear to keep his hand on this animal the twentieth part of a minute, it gave him so great pain; but upon taking the hand away, the numbness went off, and all was well again. This numbing quality continued in this torpedo even after it was dead; and the very skin was still possessed of its extraordinary powers till it became dry." Condamine informs us of a fish possessed of the powers of the torpedo, of a shape very different from the former, and every way resembling a lamprey. This animal, if touched by the hand, or even with a stick, instantly benumbs the hand and arm to the very shoulder; and sometimes the man falls down under the blow. These animals, therefore, must affect the nervous system in a different manner from the former, both with respect to the manner and the intention; but

how this effect is wrought, we must be content to dismiss in obscurity.

CHAPTER IV.

OF THE LAMPREY, AND ITS AFFINITIES.

THERE is a species of the Lamprey served up as a great delicacy among the modern Romans, very different from ours. Whether theirs be the *Muræna* of the ancients I will not pretend to say; but there is nothing more certain than that our lamprey is not. The Roman lamprey agrees with the ancient fish in being kept in ponds, and considered by the luxurious as a very great delicacy.

The lamprey known among us is differently estimated, according to the season in which it is caught, or the place where it has been fed. Those that leave the sea to deposit their spawn in fresh waters are the best; those that are entirely bred in our rivers, and that have never been at sea, are considered as much inferior to the former. Those that are taken in the months of March, April, or May, just upon their leaving the sea, are reckoned very good, those that are caught after they have cast their spawn, are found to be flabby and of little value. Those caught in several of the rivers of Ireland the people will not venture to touch; those of the English Severn are considered as the most delicate of all other fish whatever.

The lamprey much resembles an eel in its general appearance, but is of a lighter colour, and rather a clumsier make. It differs however in the mouth, which is round, and placed rather obliquely below the end of the nose. It more resembles the mouth of a

leech than an eel; and the animal has a hole on the top of the head through which it spouts water, as in the cetaceous kind. There are seven holes on each side for respiration; and the fins are formed rather by a lengthening out of the skin, than any set of bones or spines for that purpose. As the mouth is formed resembling that of a leech, so it has a property resembling that animal, of sticking close to and sucking any body it is applied to. It is extraordinary the power they have of adhering to stones, which they do so firmly as not to be drawn off without some difficulty. We are told of one that weighed but three pounds, and yet it stuck so firmly to a stone of twelve pounds that it remained suspended at its mouth, from which it was separated with no small difficulty. This amazing power of suction is supposed to arise from the animal's exhausting the air within its body by the hole over the nose, while the mouth is closely fixed to the object, and permits no air to enter. It would be easy to determine the weight this animal is thus able to sustain, which will be equal to the weight of a column of air of equal diameter with the fish's mouth.

From some peculiarity of formation, this animal swims generally with its body as near as possible to the surface; and it might easily be drowned by being kept by force for any time under water. Muralto has given us the anatomy of this animal; but, in a very minute description, makes no mention of lungs. Yet I am very apt to suspect, that two red glands tissue with nerves, which he describes as lying towards the back of the head are no other than the lungs of this animal. The absolute necessity it is under of breathing in the air, convinces me that it must have lungs, though I do not know of any anatomist that has described them.

The adhesive quality in the lamprey may be in

some measure increased by that slimy substance with which its body is all over smeared; a substance that serves at once to keep it warm in its cold element, and also to keep its skin soft and pliant. This mucus is separated by two long lymphatic canals, that extend on each side from the head to the tail, and that furnish it in great abundance. As to its intestines, it seems to have but one great bowel, running from the mouth to the vent, narrow at both ends, and wide in the middle.

So simple a conformation seems to imply an equal simplicity of appetite. In fact, the lamprey's food is either slime and water, or such small water insects as are scarcely perceivable. Perhaps its appetite may be more active at sea, of which it is properly a native; but when it comes up into our rivers, it is hardly perceived to devour any thing.

Its usual time of leaving the sea, which it is annually seen to do in order to spawn, is about the beginning of spring; and after a stay of a few months it returns again to the sea. Their preparation for spawning is peculiar: their manner is to make holes in the gravelly bottom of rivers, and on this occasion their sucking power is particularly serviceable, for if they meet with a stone of a considerable size, they will remove it and throw it out. Their young are produced from eggs in the manner of flat fish; the female remains near the place where they are excluded, and continues with them till they come forth. She is sometimes seen with her whole family playing about her; and after some time she conducts them in triumph back to the ocean.

But some have not sufficient strength to return, and these continue in the fresh water till they die. Indeed, the life of this fish, according to Rondeletius, who has given its history, is but of very short continuance, and a single brood is the extent of the

female's fertility. As soon as she has returned after casting her eggs, she seems exhausted and flabby. She becomes old before her time, and two years is generally the limit of her existence.

However this may be, they are very indifferent eating after they have cast their eggs, and particularly at the approach of hot weather. The best season for them is the months of March, April and May; and they are usually taken in nets with salmon, and sometimes in baskets at the bottom of the river. It has been an old custom for the city of Gloucester annually to present the king with a lamprey-pye; and as the gift is made at Christmas, it is not without great difficulty the corporation can procure the proper quantity, though they give a guinea a-piece for taking them.

How much they were valued among the ancients, or a fish bearing some resemblance to them, appears from all the classics, that have praised good living, or ridiculed gluttony. One story we are told of this fish, with which I will conclude its history. A senator of Rome, whose name does not deserve being transmitted to posterity, was famous for the delicacy of his lampreys. Tigelinus, Manucius, and all the celebrated epicures of Rome, were loud in his praises: no man's fish had such a flavour, were so nicely fed, or so exactly pickled. Augustus, hearing so much of this man's entertainments, desired to be his guest; and soon found that fame had been just to his merits—the man had indeed very fine lampreys, and of an exquisite flavour. The emperor was desirous of knowing the method by which he fed his fish to so fine a relish; and the glutton, making no secret of his art, informed him, that his way was to throw into his ponds such of his slaves as had at any time displeased him. Augustus, we are told, was not much pleased with his receipt, and instantly

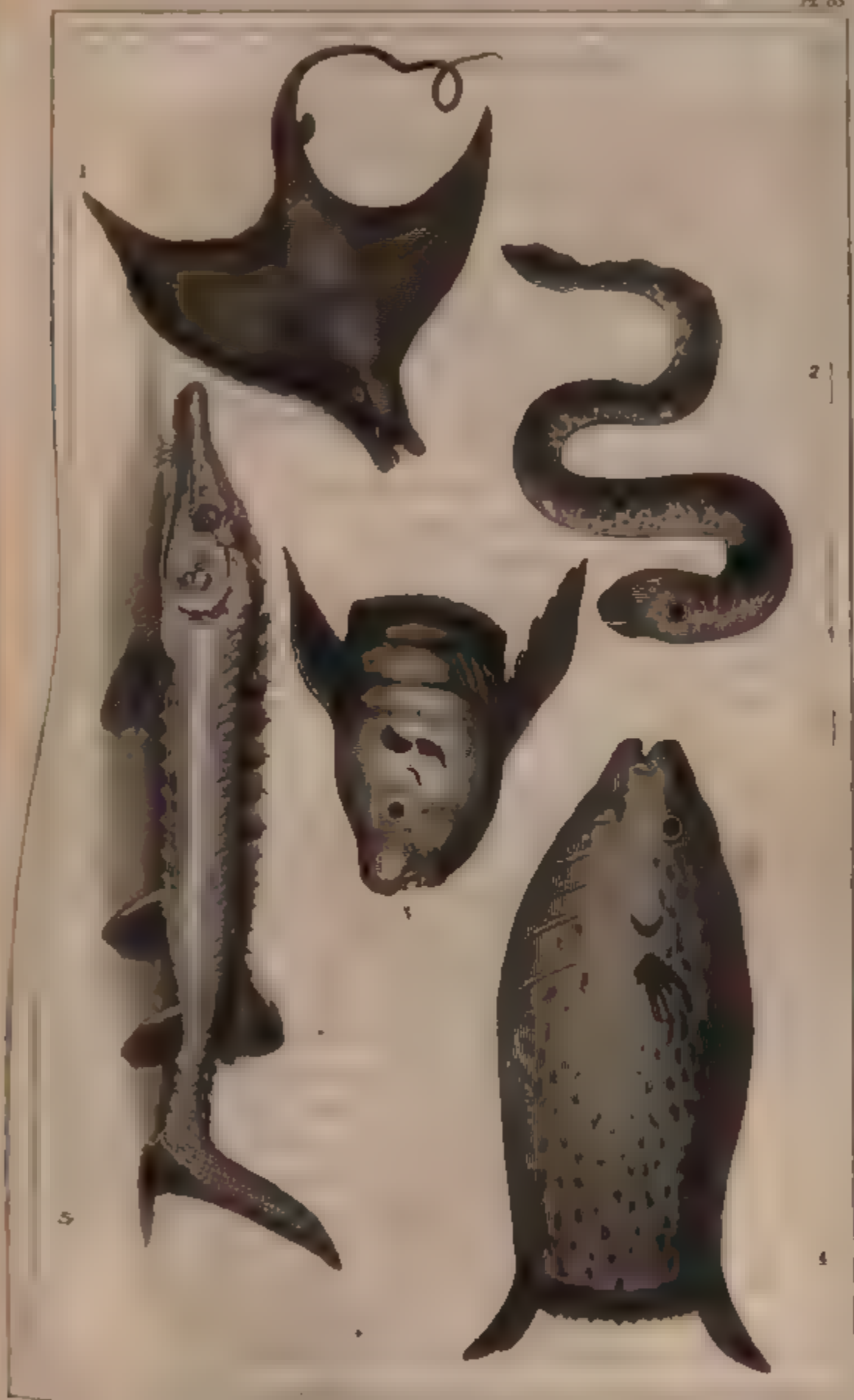
ordered all his ponds to be filled up. The story would have ended better if he had ordered the owner to be flung in also.

CHAPTER V.

THE STURGEON, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE Sturgeon, with a form as terrible and a body as large as the shark, is yet as harmless as the fish we have been just describing; incapable and unwilling to injure others, it flies from the smallest fishes, and generally falls a victim to its own timidity.

The sturgeon, in its general form, resembles a fresh-water pike. The nose is long, the mouth is situated beneath, being small, and without jaw-bones or teeth. But though it is so harmless and ill provided for war, the body is formidable enough to appearance. It is long, pentagonal, and covered with five rows of large bony knobs, one row on the back and two on each side, and a number of fins to give it greater expedition. Of this fish there are three kinds; the Common Sturgeon, the Caviar Sturgeon, and the Huso or isinglass fish. The first has eleven knobs or scales on the back, the second has fifteen, and the latter thirteen on the back, and forty-three on the tail. These differences seem slight to us who only consider the animal's form, but those who consider its uses, find the distinction of considerable importance. The first is the sturgeon, the flesh of which is sent pickled into all parts of Europe; the second is the fish, from the roe of which that noted delicacy called *caviar* is made; and the third, besides supplying the caviar, furnishes also the valuable



1. Sea Serpent 2. Samprey 3. Short Codon
4. Long Codon 5. Sturgeon.

commodity of isinglass.* They all grow to a very great size, and some of them have been found above eighteen feet long.

There is not a country in Europe but what this fish visits at different seasons; it annually ascends the largest rivers to spawn, and propagates in an amazing degree. The inhabitants along the banks of the Po, the Danube, and the Wolga, make great profit yearly of its incursions up the stream, and have their nets prepared for its reception. The sturgeon also is brought daily to the markets of Rome and Venice, and they are known to abound in the Mediterranean Sea. Yet those fish that keep entirely either in salt or fresh water are but comparatively small. When the sturgeon enjoys the vicissitude of fresh and salt water, it is then that it grows to an enormous size, so as almost to rival even the whale in magnitude.

Nor are we without frequent visits from this much esteemed fish in England. It is often accidentally taken in our rivers in salmon nets, and particularly in those parts that are not far remote from the sea. The largest we have heard of caught in Great Britain was a fish taken in the Esk, where they are most frequently found, which weighed four hundred and sixty pounds. An enormous size to those who have only seen our fresh water fishes!

North America also furnishes the sturgeon; their rivers, in May, June, and July, supply them in very great abundance. At that time they are seen sporting in the water, and leaping from its surface seve-

[* Willoughby and others inform us that isinglass is also made of the sound of the Belluga; and Newmann, that it is made of the Huso Germanorum, and other fish, which are frequently sold in the public markets of Vienna. The sounds of cod properly prepared, afford this substance; and the lakes of America abound with fish from which the very finest sort may be obtained.—*URE's Dictionary of Chemistry*—ISINGLASS.]

ral yards into the air. When they fall again on their sides, the concussion is so violent that the noise is heard, in still weather, at some miles distance.

But of all places where this animal is to be found, it appears no where in such numbers as in the lakes of Frischehaff and Curischaff, near the city of Pillau. In the rivers also that empty themselves into the Euxine Sea this fish is caught in great numbers, particularly at the mouth of the river Don. In all these places the fishermen regularly expect their arrival from the sea, and have their nets and salt ready prepared for their reception.

As the sturgeon is a harmless fish, and no way voracious, it is never caught by a bait in the ordinary manner of fishing, but always in nets. From the description given above of its mouth, it is not to be supposed that the sturgeon would swallow any hook capable of holding so large a bulk, and so strong a swimmer. In fact, it never attempts to seize any of the finny tribe, but lives by rooting at the bottom of the sea, where it makes insects and sea plants its whole subsistence. From this quality of floundering at the bottom it has received its name, which comes from the German verb *stoeren*, signifying to wallow in the mud. That it lives upon no large animals is obvious to all those who cut it open, where nothing is found in its stomach but a kind of slimy substance, which has induced some to think it lives only upon water and air. From hence there is a German proverb, which is applied to a man extremely temperate, when they say, he is as moderate as a sturgeon.

As the sturgeon is so temperate in its appetites, so is it also equally timid in its nature. There would be scarcely any method of taking it, did not its natural desire of propagation induce it to incur so great a variety of dangers. The smallest fish is

alone sufficient to terrify a shoal of sturgeons; for, being unfurnished with any weapon of defence, they are obliged to trust to their swiftness and their caution for security. Like all animals that do not make war upon others, sturgeons live in society among themselves; rather for the purposes of pleasure, than from any power of mutual protection. Gesner even asserts, that they are delighted with sounds of various kinds, and that he has seen them shoal together at the notes of a trumpet.

The usual time, as was said before, for the sturgeon to come up rivers to deposit its spawn, is about the beginning of summer, when the fishermen of all great rivers make a regular preparation for its reception. At Pillau, particularly, the shores are formed into districts, and allotted to companies of fishermen, some of which are rented for about three hundred pounds a-year. The nets in which the sturgeon is caught, are made of small cord, and placed across the mouth of the river; but in such a manner that, whether the tide ebbs or flows, the pouch of the net goes with the stream. The sturgeon thus caught while in the water, is one of the strongest fishes that swims, and often breaks the net to pieces that encloses it; but the instant it is raised with its head above water, all its activity ceases; it is then a lifeless, spiritless lump, and suffers itself to be tamely dragged on shore. It has been found prudent, however, to draw it to shore gently; for, if excited by any unnecessary violence, it has been found to break the fishermen's legs with a blow of its tail. The most experienced fishers, therefore, when they have drawn it to the brink, keep the head still elevated, which prevents its doing any mischief with the hinder part of the body; others, by a noose, fasten the head and the tail together; and thus, without immediately despatching it, bring it to the market, if

there be one near, or keep it till their number is completed for exportation.

The flesh of this animal pickled, is very well known at all the tables of Europe, and is even more prized in England than in any of the countries where it is usually caught. The fishermen have two different methods of preparing it. The one is by cutting it in long pieces lengthwise, and having salted them, by hanging them up in the sun to dry: the fish thus prepared is sold in all the countries of the Levant, and supplies the want of better provision. The other method, which is usually practised in Holland, and along the shores of the Baltic, is to cut the sturgeon crosswise into short pieces, and put it into small barrels, with a pickle made of salt and saumure. This is the sturgeon which is sold in England and of which great quantities came from the North, until we gave encouragement to the importation of it from North America. From thence we are very well supplied; but it is said, not with such good fish as those imported from the north of Europe.

A very great trade is also carried on with the roe of the sturgeon, preserved in a particular manner, and called Caviar: it is made from the roe of all kinds of sturgeon, but particularly the second. This is much more in request in other countries of Europe than with us. To all these high relished meats, the appetite must be formed by degrees; and though formerly even in England it was very much in request at the politest tables, it is at present sunk entirely into disuse. It is still, however, a considerable merchandise among the Turks, Greeks, and Venetians. Caviar somewhat resembles soft soap in consistence; but it is of a brown, uniform colour, and is eaten as cheese with bread. The manner of making it is this: They take the spawn from the body of the

sturgeon—for it is to be observed that the sturgeon differs from other cartilaginous fish, in that it has spawn like a cod, and not eggs like a ray;—they take the spawn, I say, and freeing it from the small membranes that connect it together, they wash it with vinegar, and afterward spread it to dry upon a table; they then put it into a vessel with salt, breaking the spawn with their hands, and not with a pestle; this done, they put it into a canvass bag, letting the liquor drain from it; lastly, they put it into a tub, with holes in the bottom, so that, if there be any moisture still remaining, it may run out: then it is pressed down, and covered up close for use.

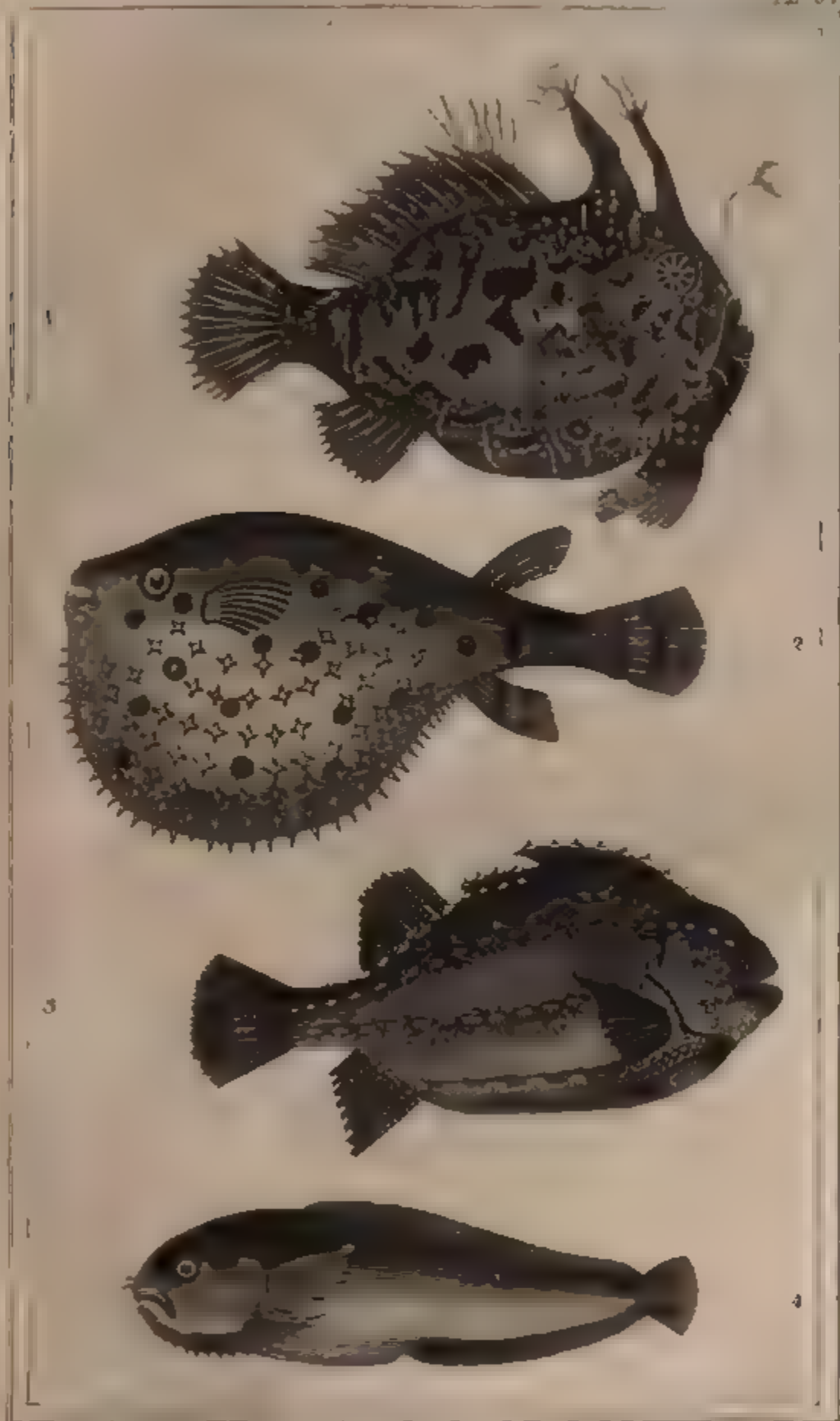
But the Huso or Isinglass fish furnishes a still more valuable commodity. This fish is caught in great quantities in the Danube, from the month of October to January: it is seldom under fifty pounds weight, and often above four hundred: its flesh is soft, glutinous, and flabby; but it is sometimes salted, which makes it better tasted, and then it turns red like salmon. It is for the commodity it furnishes that it is chiefly taken. Isinglass is of a whitish substance, inclining to yellow, done up into rolls, and so exported for use. It is very well known as serviceable not only in medicine, but many arts. The varnisher, the wine-merchant, and even the clothier, know its uses; and very great sums are yearly expended upon this single article of commerce. The manner of making it is this: They take the skin, the entrails, the fins, and the tail of this fish, and cut them into small pieces; these are left to macerate in a sufficient quantity of warm water, and they are all boiled shortly after with a slow fire, until they are dissolved and reduced to a jelly; this jelly is spread upon instruments made for the purpose, so that, drying, it assumes the form of parchment, and when quite dry, it is then rolled into the form in which we see it in the shops.

This valuable commodity is principally furnished from Russia, where they prepare great quantities surprisingly cheap. Mr. Jackson, an ingenious countryman of our own, found out an obvious method of making a glue at home, that answered all the purposes of isinglass; but what with the trouble of making it, and perhaps the arts put in practice to undersell him, he was, as I am told, obliged to discontinue the improvement of his discovery. Indeed, it is a vain attempt to manufacture among ourselves those things which may be more naturally and cheaply supplied elsewhere. We have many trades that are unnaturally, if I may so express it, employed among us, who furnish more laboriously those necessities with which other countries could easily and cheaply supply us. It would be wiser to take what they can thus produce, and to turn our artisans to the increase and manufacture of such productions as thrive more readily among us. Were, for instance, the number of hands that we have now employed in the manufacture of silk, turned to the increase of agriculture, it is probable that the increased quantity of corn thus produced, would be more than an equivalent for the diminution of national wealth in purchasing wrought silk from other countries.

CHAPTER VI.

OF ANOMALOUS CARTILAGINOUS FISHES.

Of all others, the cartilaginous class seems to abound with the greatest variety of ill-formed animals; and, if philosophy could allow the expression, we might say the cartilaginous class was the class



1. Angler or Fishing Frog 2. Globe Lionfish
3. Pump Lucker 4. Mutton Lucker

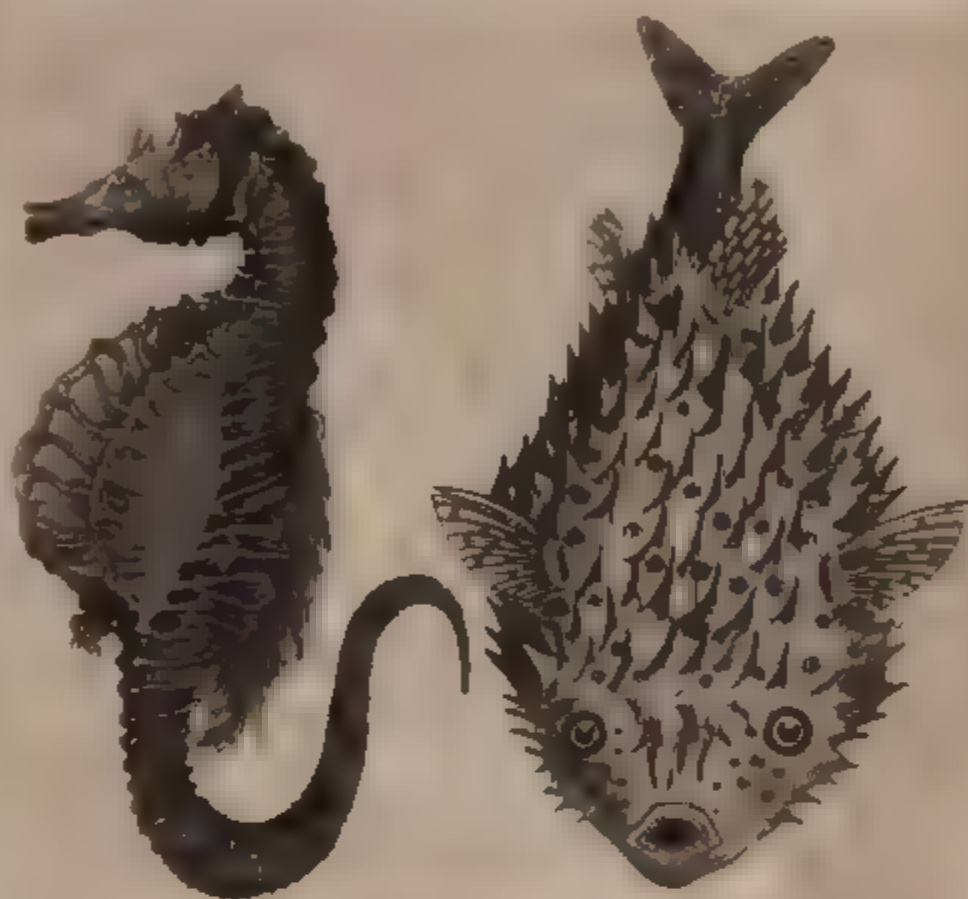
of monsters: in fact, it exhibits a variety of shapeless beings, the deviations of which from the usual form of fishes, are beyond the power of words to describe, and scarcely of the pencil to draw. In this class we have the Pipe Fish, that almost tapers to a thread, and the Sun Fish that has the appearance of a bulky head, but the body cut off in the middle; the Hippocampus, with a head somewhat like that of a horse; and the Water Bat, whose head can scarcely be distinguished from the body. In this class we find the Fishing Frog, which from its deformity some have called the Sea Devil, the Chimæra, the Lump Fish, the Sea Porcupine, and the Sea Snail. Of all these the history is but little known, and naturalists supply the place with description.

The Sun Fish sometimes grows to a very large size; one taken near Plymouth was five hundred weight. In form it resembles a bream, or some deep fish cut off in the middle; the mouth is very small, and contains in each jaw two broad teeth, with sharp edges; the colour of the back is dusky and dappled, and the belly is of a silvery white. When boiled it has been observed to turn to a glutinous jelly, and would most probably serve for all the purposes of isinglass, were it found in sufficient plenty.

The Fishing Frog in shape very much resembles a tadpole or young frog, but then a tadpole of enormous size, for it grows to above five feet long, and its mouth is sometimes a yard wide. Nothing can exceed its deformity. The head is much bigger than the whole body; the under jaw projects beyond the upper, and both are armed with rows of slender sharp teeth; the palate and the tongue are furnished with teeth in like manner; the eyes are placed on the top of the head, and are encompassed with prickles; immediately above the nose are two long beards or filaments, small in the beginning, but thicker at the

end, and round: these, as it is said, answer a very singular purpose; for being made somewhat resembling a fishing-line, it is asserted, that the animal converts them to the purposes of fishing. With these extended, as Pliny asserts, the fishing frog hides in muddy waters, and leaves nothing but the beards to be seen: the curiosity of the smaller fish brings them to view these filaments, and their hunger induces them to seize the bait, upon which the animal in ambush instantly draws in its filaments with the little fish that had taken the bait, and devours it without mercy. This story, though apparently improbable, has found credit among some of our best naturalists; but what induces me to doubt the fact is, that there is another species of this animal that has no beards, which it would not want if they were necessary to the existence of the kind. Rondeletius informs us, that if we take out the bowels, the body will appear with a kind of transparence; and that if a lighted candle be placed within the body, as in a lantern; the whole has a very formidable appearance. —The fishermen, however, have in general a great regard for this ugly fish, as it is an enemy to the dog-fish, the bodies of those fierce and voracious animals being often found in its stomach: whenever they take it, therefore, they always set it at liberty.

The Lump Fish is trifling in size, compared to the former: its length is but sixteen inches, and its weight about four pounds; the shape of the body is like that of a bream, deep, and it swims edgewise; the back is sharp and elevated, and the belly flat; the lips, mouth, and tongue of this animal are of a deep red; the whole skin is rough, with bony knobs, the largest row is along the ridge of the back; the belly is of a bright crimson colour: but what makes the chief singularity in this fish is an oval aperture in the belly, surrounded with a fleshy soft substance,



1 Hippocampus 2 Sea Porcupine - 3 Wolf Fish
4 Electrical Eel 5 Pipe Fish.

that seems bearded all round; by means of this part it adheres with vast force to any thing it pleases. If flung into a pail of water, it will stick so close to the bottom, that on taking the fish by the tail, one may lift up pail and all, though it holds several gallons of water. Great numbers of these fish are found along the coasts of Greenland in the beginning of summer, where they resort to spawn. Their roe is remarkably large, and the Greenlanders boil it to a pulp for eating. They are extremely fat, but not admired in England, being both flabby and insipid.

The Sea Snail takes its name from the soft and unctuous texture of its body, resembling the snail upon land. It is almost transparent, and soon dissolves and melts away. It is but a little animal, being not above five inches long. The colour, when fresh taken, is of a pale brown, the shape of the body round, and the back-fin reaches all the way from the head to the tail. Beneath the throat is a round depression of a whitish colour, surrounded by twelve brown spots, placed in a circle. It is taken in England, at the mouths of rivers, four or five miles distant from the sea.

The body of the Pipe Fish, in the thickest part, is not thicker than a swan quill, while it is above sixteen inches long. This is angular, but the angles being not very sharp, they are not discernible until the fish is dried. Its general colour is an olive brown, marked with numbers of bluish lines, pointing from the back to the belly. It is viviparous; for, on crushing one that was just taken, hundreds of very minute young ones were observed to crawl about.

The Hippocampus, which from the form of its head some call the Sea Horse, never exceeds nine inches in length. It is about as thick as a man's thumb, and the body is said, while alive, to have hair on the fore part, which falls off when it is dead.

The snout is a sort of tube with a hole at the bottom, to which there is a cover, which the animal can open and shut at pleasure. Behind the eyes there are two fins which look like ears; and above them are two holes, which serve for respiration. The whole body seems to be composed of cartilaginous rings, on the intermediate membranes of which several small prickles are placed. It is found in the Mediterranean, and also in the Western Ocean; and, upon the whole, more resembles a great caterpillar than a fish. The ancients considered it as extremely venomous; probably induced by its peculiar figure.

From these harmless animals, covered with a slight coat of mail, we may proceed to others, more thickly defended, and more formidably armed, whose exact station in the scale of fishes is not yet ascertained. While Linnæus ranks them among the cartilaginous kinds, a later naturalist places them among the spinous class. With which tribe they most agree, succeeding observations must determine. At present we seem better acquainted with their figure than their history: their deformity is obvious; and the venomous nature of the greatest number has been confirmed by fatal experience. This circumstance, as well as the happy distance at which they are placed from us, being all found in the Oriental or American seas may have prevented a more critical inquiry; so that we know but little of the nature of their malignity, and still less of their pursuits and enmities in the deep.

In the first of this tribe we may place the Sea Orb, which is almost round, has a mouth like a frog, and is from seven inches to two feet long. Like the porcupine, from whence it sometimes takes its name, being also called the Sea Porcupine, it is covered over with long thorns or prickles, which point on

every side; and when the animal is enraged, it can blow up its body as round as a bladder. Of this extraordinary creature there are many kinds; some threatening only with spines, as the Sea Hedgehog; others defended with a bony helmet that covers the head, as the Ostracion; others with a coat of mail from the head to the tail, where it terminates in a point, as the Centriscus; and others still, armed offensively and defensively with bones and spines, as the Shield Orb.

Of these scarcely one is without its peculiar weapon of offence. The centriscus wounds with its spine; the ostracion poisons with its venom; the orb is impregnable, and is absolutely poisonous if eaten. Indeed, their figure is not such as would tempt one to make the experiment; and the natives of those countries where they are found, are careful to inform foreigners of their danger: yet a certain sailor at the Cape of Good Hope, not believing what the Dutch told him concerning their venom was resolved to make the experiment, and break through a prejudice which he supposed was founded on the animal's deformity. He tried and eat one; but his rashness cost him his life—he instantly fell sick, and died a few days after.

These frightful animals are of different sizes; some not bigger than a foot-ball, and others as large as a bushel. They almost all flatten and erect their spines at pleasure, and increase the terrors of their appearance in proportion to the approach of danger. At first they seem more inoffensive, their body oblong, with all their weapons pointing towards the tail, but upon being provoked or alarmed, the body that before seemed small swells to the view, the animal visibly grows rounder and larger, and all its prickles stand upright, and threaten the invader on every side. The Americans often amuse themselves

the coasts in the Gulf of Mexico; and whenever the shore is covered with them in an unusual manner, it is considered as a certain forerunner of a storm.

PART III.

OF SPINOUS FISHES.

CHAPTER I.

THE DIVISION OF SPINOUS FISHES.

THE third general division of fishes is into that of the Spinous or bony kind. These are obviously distinguished from the rest by having a complete bony covering to their gills; by their being furnished with no other method of breathing but gills only; by their bones, which are sharp and thorny; and their tails, which are placed in a situation perpendicular to the body. This is that class which alone our later naturalists are willing to admit as fishes. The Cetaceous class with them are but beasts that have taken up their abode in the ocean; the Cartilaginous class are an amphibious band, that are but half denizens of that element: it is fishes of the spinous kind that really deserve the appellation.

This distinction the generality of mankind will hardly allow; but whatever be the justice of this preference in favour of the spinous class, it is certain that the cetaceous and cartilaginous classes bear no proportion to them in number. Of the spinous class

are already known above four hundred species; so that the numbers of the former are trifling in comparison, and make not above a fifth part of the finny creation.

From the great variety in this class, it is obvious how difficult a task it must have been to describe or remember even a part of what it contains. When six hundred different sorts of animals offer themselves to consideration, the mind is bewildered in the multiplicity of objects that all lay some claim to its attention. To obviate this confusion, systems have been devised, which, throwing several fishes that agree in many particulars into one group, and thus uniting all into so many particular bodies, the mind that was incapable of separately considering each, is enabled to comprehend all when thus offered in larger masses to its consideration.

Indeed, of all the beings in animated nature, fishes most demand a systematical arrangement. Quadrupeds are but few, and can be all known: birds, from their seldom varying in their size, can be very tolerably distinguished without system; but among fishes, which no size can discriminate, where the animal ten inches and the animal ten feet long is entirely the same, there must be some other criterion by which they are to be distinguished; something that gives precision to our ideas of the animal whose history we desire to know.

Of the real history of fishes very little is yet known, but of very many we have full and sufficient accounts as to their external form. It would be unpardonable, therefore, in a history of these animals, not to give the little we do know; and at least arrange our forces, though we cannot tell their destination. In this art of arrangement, Artedi and Linnæus have long been conspicuous: they have both taken a view of the animal's form in different

lights, and from the parts which most struck them have founded their respective systems.

Artedi, who was foremost, perceiving that some fishes had hard prickly fins, as the pike; that others had soft pliant ones, as the herring; and that others still wanted that particular fin by which the gills are opened and shut, as the eel, made out a system from these varieties. Linnæus, on the other hand, rejecting this system, which he found liable to too many exceptions, considered the fins, not with regard to their substance, but their position. The ventral fins seem to be the great objects of his system: he considers them as in fishes supplying the same offices as feet in quadrupeds; and from their total absence, or from their being situated nearer the head or the tail, in different fishes, he takes the differences of his system.

These arrangements, which are totally arbitrary, and which are rather a method than a science, are always fluctuating, and the last is generally preferred to that which went before. There has lately appeared, however, a system, composed by M. Gouan of Montpellier, that deserves applause for more than its novelty. It appears to me the best arrangement of this kind that ever was made; and in it the divisions are not only precisely systematical, but in some measure adopted by nature itself. This learned Frenchman has united the systems of Artedi and Linnæus together; and by bringing one to correct the other, has made out a number of tribes, that are marked with the utmost precision. A part of his system, however, we have already gone through in the cartilaginous, or, as he calls a part of them the *branchiostegous* tribe of fishes. In the arrangement of these I have followed Linnæus, as the number of them was but small, and his method simple. But in that which is more properly called the spinous class

of fishes, I will follow M. Gouan's system; the terms of which, as well as of all the former systems, require some explanation. I do not love to multiply the technical terms of a science, but it often happens that names, by being long used, are as necessary to be known as the science itself.

If we consider the substance of the fin of a fish, we shall find it composed, besides the skin, either of straight, hard, pointed, bony prickles or spines, as in the pike; or of soft, crooked, or forked bones, or cartilages, as in the herring. The fish that have bony prickly fins are called *Prickly finned Fish*; the latter, that have soft or cartilaginous fins, are called *Soft-finned Fish*. The prickly-finned fish have received the Greek newformed name of *Acanthopterygii*; the soft-finned fish have likewise their barbarous Greek name of *Malacopterygii*. Thus far Artedi has supplied M. Gouan with names and divisions. All spinous fish are divided into *Prickly-finned fish*, and *Soft-finned fish*.

Again, Linnæus has taught him to remark the situation of the fins; for the ventral or belly fins, which are those particularly to be remarked, are either wholly wanting, as in the eel, and then the fish is called *Apodal*, (a Greek word signifying without feet); or the ventral fins are placed more forward than the pectoral fins, as in the haddock, and then the animal is called a *Jugular* fish; or the ventral fins are placed directly under the pectoral fins, as in the father-lasher, and then it is called a *Thoracic* fish; or lastly, the ventral fins are placed nearer the tail than the pectoral fins, as in the minnow, and then it is an *Abdominal* fish.

Possessed of these distributions, the French naturalist mixes and unites them into two grand divisions. All the prickly-finned fish make one general division; all the soft-finned fish another. These first

are distinguished from each other, as being either *apodal*, *jugular*, *thoracic*, or *abdominal*. Thus there are prickly-finned *apodal* fishes, prickly-finned *jugular* fishes, prickly-finned *thoracic* fishes, and prickly-finned *abdominal* fishes. On the other hand, the soft-finned fishes fall under a similar distribution, and make the other general division. Thus there are soft-finned *apodal* fishes, soft-finned *jugular* fishes, soft-finned *thoracic* fishes, and soft-finned *abdominal* fishes. These general characters are strongly marked, and easily remembered. It only remains, therefore, to divide these into such tribes as are most strongly marked by nature, and to give the distinct characters of each, to form a complete system with great simplicity. This M. Gouan has done; and the tribes into which he has distributed each of these divisions exactly amount to fifty. Thus the reader, who can contain in his memory the characteristic marks of fifty kinds, will have a tolerable idea of the form of every kind of spinous fish. I say, of the form; for as to the history and nature of the animal itself, that can only be obtained by experience and information.

SECTION I.

PRICKLY-FINNED FISHES.

PRICKLY-FINNED APODAL FISH.

1. THE *Trichurus*. The body of a sword-form; the head oblong; the teeth sword-like, bearded near the points; the fore-teeth largest; the fin that covers the gills with seven spines; the tail ending in a point without fins; an inhabitant near the Oriental and

1. Horned Pout - 2. Fish - 3. Squid - 4. White Lure



American shores; of a silvery white; frequently leaping into the fishermen's boats in China.

2. The *Xiphias* or *Sword-fish*. The body round; the head long; the upper jaw terminating by a long beak, in form of a sword; the fin that covers the gills with six spines; an inhabitant of Europe; an enemy to the whale.

3. The *Ophidium* or *Gilt-head*. The body sword-like; the head blunt; the fin covering the gills with seven spines, the opening of the mouth side-wise; the fins of the back, the anus, and the tail, all joining together; the most beautiful of all fishes, covered over with green, gold, and silver; it is by sailors called the dolphin, and gives chase to the flying-fish.

PRICKLY-FINNED JUGULAR FISH.

4. The *Trachinus* or *Weever*. The body oblong; the head obtuse; the bones covering the gills jagged at the bottom; the fins covering the gills with six spines; the anus near the breast; buries itself in the sands, leaving only its nose out; and if trod upon, immediately strikes with the spines that form its dorsal fins, which are venomous and dangerous.

5. The *Uranoscopus*. The body wedge-like; the head almost round, and larger than the body; the mouth flat; the eyes on the top of the head; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the anus in the middle of the body; an inhabitant of the Mediterranean Sea.

6. The *Callyonymus* or *Dragonet*. The body almost wedge-like; the head broad, and larger than the body, the mouth even with the body; the bony covering of the gills close shut; the opening to the gills behind the head; the fin covering the gills with six spines; an inhabitant of the Atlantic Ocean.

7. The *Blennius* or *Blenny*. The body oblong; the head obtusely bevil; the teeth a single range; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the ventral fins have two small blunt bones in each; a species of this animal is viviparous.

PRICKLY-FINNED THORACIC FISHES.

8. The *Gobius* or *Gudgeon*. The body round and oblong; the head with two little holes between the eyes, one before the other; the fin covering the gills with four spines; the ventral fins joined together.

9. The *Cepola*. The body sword-like; the head blunt; the mouth flat; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the fins distinct; an inhabitant of the Mediterranean Sea.

10. The *Coryphæna* or *Razor-fish*. The body wedge-like; the head very bevil; the fin covering the gills with five spines.

11. The *Scomber* or *Mackerel*. The body oblong; the line running down the side zigzagged towards the tail; the head sharp and small; the fins covering the gills with seven spines; several false fins towards the tail.

12. The *Labrus* or *Wrasse*. The body oval, the head middling; the lips doubled inward; both cutting and grinding teeth; the covers of the gills scaly, the fin covering the gills generally with five spines; the pectoral fins pointed.

13. The *Sparus*, or *Sea-bream*. The body oblong; the head middling; the lips not inverted; the teeth cutting and grinding; the cover of the gills scaly; the fins covering the gills with five rays; the pectoral fins pointed.

14. The *Chætodon* or *Cat-fish*. The body oblong; the head small; the teeth slender and bending; the

fin covering the gills with five or six spines; the fins of the back and anus scaly.

15. The *Sciæna*. The body nearly elliptical; the head bevil; the covers of the fins scaly; the fin covering the gills with six rays; the fins of the back jagged, and hidden in a furrow in the back.

16. The *Perch*. The body oblong; the head bevil; the covers of the gills scaly and toothed; the fin covering the gills with seven spines; the fins in some jagged.

17. The *Scorpæna* or *Father-lasher*. The body oblong; the head great, with beards; the covers of the gills armed with prickles; the fin covering the gills with seven spines.

18. The *Mullus* or *Surmulet*. The body slender; the head almost four-cornered; the fin covering the gills with three spines; some of these have beards; a fish highly prized by the Romans, and still considered as a very great delicacy.

19. The *Trigla* or the *Gurnard*. The body slender; the head nearly four-cornered, and covered with a bony coat; the fin covering the gills with seven spines; the pectoral and ventral fins strengthened with additional muscles and bones, and very large for the animal's size.

20. The *Cottus* or *Bull-head*. The body wedge-like; the head flat and broader than the body; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the head furnished with prickles, knobs, and beards.

21. The *Zeus* or *Doree*. The body oblong; the head bevil; the fin covering the gills with seven rays; the fins jagged; the upper jaw with a loose floating skin depending into the mouth.

22. The *Thrachipterus* or *Sabre*. The body sword-like; the head bevil; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the lateral line straight; the scales in a single order; a loose skin in both the jaws.

23. The *Gasterosteus* or *Stickleback*. The body broadest towards the tail; the head oblong; the fin covering the gills with three spines; prickles starting backward before the back fins and the fins of the anus.

PRICKLY-FINNED ABDOMINAL FISH.

24. The *Silurus* or *Sheat-fish*. The body oblong; the head large; the fin covering the gills from four to fourteen spines; the leading bones or spines in the back and pectoral fins toothed.

25. The *Mugil* or *Mullet*. The body oblong, the head almost conical; the upper jaw with a furrow, which receives the prominence of the under; the fin covering the gills with seven rays.

26. The *Polynemus*. The body oblong; the head with a beak; the fin covering the gills with from five to seven spines; the bones that move the pectoral fins not articulated to those fins.

27. The *Teuthys*. The body almost elliptical; the head abruptly shortened; the fin covering the gills with five rays; the teeth in a single row, close, strong, and even.

28. The *Elops* or *Sea-serpent*. The body slender; the head large; the fin covering the gills double, with thirty spines, and armed externally with five bones resembling teeth.



1 Cod 2 Sculpin 3 Perch 4 Bass
5 Salmon

SECTION II.

SOFT-FINNED FISHES.

SOFT-FINNED APODAL FISHES.

29. **THE *Murena* or *Eel*.** The body round and slender; the head terminating in a beak; the fin covering the gills with ten rays; the opening to the gills pipe-fashion, placed near the pectoral fins; the fins of the back, the anus, and the tail, united in one.

30. **The *Gymnotus* or *Carapo*.** The body broadest on the back, like the blade of a knife; the head small; the fin covering the gills with five rays; the back without a fin; two beards or filaments from the upper lip; an inhabitant of Brasil.

31. **The *Anarchicas* or *Wolf-fish*.** The body roundish and slender; the head large and blunt; the fore-teeth above and below conical; the grinding teeth and those in the palate round; the fin covering the gill has six rays.

32. **The *Stromateus*.** The body oblong; the head small; the teeth moderately sharp; the fin covering the gills with five or six rays.

33. **The *Ammodytes* or *Launce*.** The body slender and roundish; the head terminated by a beak; the teeth of a hair-like fineness; the fin covering the gills with seven rays.

SOFT-FINNED JUGULAR FISHES.

34. **The *Lepadogaster*.** The body wedge-like; the head oblong, forwarder than the body, flattish, the beak resembling that of a duck; the pectoral fins dou-

ble, two on each side; the ventral fins joined together; a kind of bony breast-plate between the pectoral fins; the fin covering the gills with five rays; the opening to the gills pipe-fashion.

35. The *Gadus* or *Cod-fish*. The body oblong; the head wedge-like; the fin covering the gills with seven rays; several back and anal fins.

SOFT-FINNED THORACIC FISHES.

36. The *Pleuronectes*. The body elliptical; the head small; both eyes on one side of the head; the fin covering the gills with from four to seven rays.

37. The *Echineis* or *Sucking-fish*. The body almost wedge-like, moderately round; the head broader than the body; the fin covering the gills with ten rays; an oval breast-plate, streaked in form of a ladder, toothed.

38. The *Lipidopus* or *Garter-fish*. The body sword-like; the head lengthened out; the fins covering the gills with seven rays; three scales only on the whole body; two in the place of the ventral fins; the third from that of the anus.

SOFT-FINNED ABDOMINAL FISH.

39. The *Loricaria*. The body crusted over; the head broad, with a beak; no teeth; the fin covering the gills with six rays.

40. The *Atherina* or *Atherine*. The body oblong; the head of a middling size; the lips indented; the fin covering the gills with six rays; the line on the sides resembling a silver band.

41. The *Salmo* or *Salmon*. The body oblong; the head a little sharp; the fin covering the gills from

four to ten rays; the last fin on the back without its correspondent muscle, fat.

42. The *Fistularia*. The body angular, in form of a spindle; the head pipe-fashion, with a beak; the fin covering the gills with seven rays; the under jaw covering the upper.

43. The *Esox* or *Pike*. The body round; the head with a beak; the under jaw pierced longitudinally with small holes; the fin covering the gills with from seven to twelve rays.

44. The *Argentina* or *Argentine*. The body a little round and slender; the head with a beak, broader than the body; the fin covering the gills with eight rays; a spurious back fin.

45. The *Clupea* or *Herring*. The body a little oblong; the head with a small beak; the fin covering the gills with eight rays.

46. The *Exocætus* or *Flying-fish*. The body oblong; the head almost three-cornered; the fin covering the gills with ten rays; the pectoral fins placed high, and as long as the whole body; the back fin at the extremity of the back.

47. The *Cyprinus* or *Carp*. The body elongated, almost round; the head with a small beak; the hinder part of the bone covering the gills marked with a crescent; the fin covering the gills with three rays.

48. The *Cobitis* or *Loach*. The body oblong; almost equally broad throughout; the head small, a little elongated; the eyes in the hinder part of the head; the fin covering the gills from four to six rays; the covers of the gills closed below.

49. The *Ania* or *Bonito*. The body round and slender; the head, forehead, and breast, without skin; the fin covering the gills with twelve rays; two beards from the nose.

50. The *Mormyrus*. The body oblong; the head

elongated; the fin covering the gills with a single ray; the opening to the gills is linear, and has no bone covering them.

Such is the system of M. Gouan; by reducing to which any fish that offers, we can know its rank, its affinities, and partly its anatomy, all which make a considerable part in its natural history. But, to show the use of this system still more apparently, suppose I meet with a fish the name to me unknown, of which I desire to know something more. The way is first to see whether it be a cartilaginous fish, which may be known by its wanting fins to open and shut the gills, which the cartilaginous kinds are wholly without. If I find that it has them, then it is a spinous fish; and, in order to know its kind, I examine its fins, whether they be prickly or soft: I find them soft; it is therefore to be ranked among the soft-finned fishes. I then examine its ventral or belly fins, and finding that the fish has them, I look for their situation, and find they lie nearer to the tail than the pectoral fins. By this I find the animal to be a soft finned abdominal fish. Then, to know which of the kinds of these fishes it is, I examine its figure and the shape of its head, I find the body rather oblong; the head with a small beak; the lower jaw like a saw; the fin covering the gills with eight rays. This animal must therefore be the herring or one of that family, such as the pilchard, the sprat, the shad, or the anchovy. To give another instance: Upon examining the fins of a fish to me unknown, I find them prickly; I then look for the situation of the ventral fins, I find them entirely wanting; this then must be a prickly-finned apodal fish. Of this kind there are but three; and by comparing the fish with the description, I find it either of the trichurus kind, the sword-fish, or the gilt-head. Upon examining also its internal structure, I shall find a very

great similitude between my fish and that placed at the head of the family.

CHAPTER II.

OF SPINOUS FISHES IN GENERAL.

HAVING given a method by which spinous fishes may be distinguished from each other, the history of each in particular might naturally be expected to follow; but such a distinct account of each would be very disgusting from the unavoidable uniformity of every description. The history of any one of this class very much resembles that of all the rest: they breathe air and water through the gills; they live by rapine, each devouring such animals as its mouth is capable of admitting; and they propagate, not by bringing forth their young alive, as in the cetaceous tribes, nor by distinct eggs, as in the generality of the cartilaginous tribes, but by spawn, or peas, as they are generally called, which they produce by hundreds of thousands. These are the leading marks that run through their whole history, and which have so much swelled books with tiresome repetition.

It will be sufficient therefore to draw this numerous class into one point of view, and to mark how they differ from the former classes, and what they possess peculiarly striking, so as to distinguish them from each other. The first object that presents itself, and that by which they differ from all others, is the bones. These, when examined but slightly, appear to be entirely solid; yet when viewed more closely, every bone will be found hollow, and filled with a substance less rancid and oily than marrow.

These bones are very numerous, and pointed; and, as in quadrupeds, are the props or stays to which the muscles are fixed which move the different parts of the body.

The number of bones in all spinous fishes of the same kind is always the same. It is a vulgar way of speaking to say, that fishes are at some seasons more bony than at others; but this scarcely requires contradiction. It is true, indeed, that fish are at some seasons much fatter than at others; so that the quantity of the flesh being diminished, and that of the bones remaining the same, they appear to increase in number, as they actually bear a greater proportion.

All fish of the same kind, as was said, have the same number of bones: the skeleton of a fish, however irregularly the bones may fall in our way at table, has its members very regularly disposed; and every bone has its fixed place, with as much precision as we find in the orders of a regular fabric. But then spinous fish differ in the number of bones, according to the species; for some have a greater number of fins by which they move in the water. The number in each is always in proportion to the number and size of these fins; for every fish has a regular apparatus of bones and muscles, by which the fins are moved; and all those fish where they are numerous or large, must, of consequence, be considerably bony. Indeed, in the larger fish, the quantity of flesh is so much, and the bones themselves are so large, that they are easily seen and separated: but in the smaller kinds with many fins, the bones are as numerous as in the great; yet being so very minute, they lurk almost in every part of the flesh, and are dangerous as well as troublesome to be eaten. In a word, those fish which are large, fat, and have few fins, are found to be the least bony;

those which are small, lean, and have many fins, are the most bony of all others. Thus, for instance, a roach appears more bony than a carp, because it is leaner and smaller, and it is actually more bony than an eel, because it has a greater number of fins.

As the spinous fish partake less of the quadruped in their formation than any others, so they can bear to live out of their own element a shorter time. In general, when taken out of the water, they testify their change by panting violently and at closer intervals, the thin air not furnishing their gills the proper play; and in a few minutes they expire. Some indeed are more vivacious in air than others; the eel will live several hours out of water; and the carp has been known to be fattened in a damp cellar. The method is by placing it in a net well wrapped up in wet moss, the mouth only out, and then hung up in a vault. The fish is fed with white bread and milk; and the net now and then plunged into the water. The animal, thus managed, has been known not only to live for a fortnight, but to grow exceedingly fat, and of a superior flavour. From this it would seem, that the want of moisture in the gills is the chief cause of the death of these animals; and could that be supplied, their lives might be prolonged in the air, almost as well as in their own element.

Yet it is impossible to account for the different operations of the same element, upon animals that, to appearance, have the same conformation. To some fishes, bred in the sea, fresh water is immediate destruction; on the other hand, some fishes that live in our lakes and ponds, cannot bear the salt water. Whence this difference can arise, is not easily to be accounted for. The saline quality of the water cannot properly be given as the cause.

since no fishes imbibe any of the sea's saltness with their food, or in respiration. The flesh of all fishes is equally fresh, both in the river and in the saltiest depths of the ocean; the salt of the element in which they live no way mixing with their constitution. Whence then is it that animals will live only there, and will quickly expire when carried into fresh water? It may probably arise from the superior weight of the sea water. As from the great quantity of salt dissolved in its composition, it is much heavier than fresh water, so it is probable it lies with greater force upon the organs of respiration, and gives them their proper and necessary play: on the other hand, those fish which are used only to fresh water cannot bear the weight of the saline fluid, and expire in a manner suffocated in the grossness of the strange element.

But though there are some tribes that live only in the sea, and others in fresh water, yet there are some whose organs are equally adapted to either element, and that spend a part of their season in one, and a part in the other. Thus the salmon, the shad, the smelt, and the flounder, annually quit their native ocean, and come up our rivers to deposit their spawn. This seems the most important business of their lives; and there is no danger which they will not encounter, even to the surmounting precipices, to find a proper place for the deposition of their future offspring. The salmon, upon these occasions, is seen to ascend rivers five hundred miles from the sea, and to brave not only the danger of various enemies, but also to spring up cataracts as high as a house. As soon as they come to the bottom of the torrent, they seem disappointed to meet the obstruction, and swim some paces back; they then take a view of the danger that lies before them, survey it motionless for some minutes, ad-



1. Blackbelly 2. Tunny 3. Salmon 4. Trout.

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vance, and again retreat; till at last summoning up all their force, they take a leap from the bottom, their body straight, and strongly in motion; and thus most frequently clear every obstruction. It sometimes happens, however, that they want strength to make the leap; and then, in our fisheries, they are taken in their descent. But this is one of the smallest dangers that attend these adventuring animals in their progress; numberless are the methods of taking them; as well by the hook, as by nets, baskets, and other inventions, which it is not our business here to describe. Their capture makes, in several countries, a great article of commerce; and being cured in several different manners, either by salting, pickling, or drying, they are sent to all the markets of Europe.

As these mount up the rivers to deposit their spawn, others, particularly the eel, descend the fresh water stream, as Redi assures us, to bring forth their young in the sea. About the month of August, annually, these animals take the opportunity of the most obscure nights, and when the rivers are flooded by accidental rains, seek the ocean. When they have reached the sea, and produced their young, for they are viviparous, they again ascend the stream, at different times, as opportunity offers, or as the season is favourable or tempestuous. Their passage begins usually about the end of January; and continues till towards the end of May, when they are taken in the river Arno by millions, and so small that a thousand of them goes to a pound. There is nothing more certain than that they descend in our own rivers after floods, in great abundance, and are thus caught in nets, to very great advantage. They are possessed also of a power of climbing over any obstacle; for, by applying their glutinous and slimy bodies to the surface of the object they desire to surmount, they can thus creep up

locks, weirs, and every thing that would prevent their ascending the current of the stream.

But the length of the voyage performed by these fishes, is sport, if compared to what is annually undertaken by some tribes, that constantly reside in the ocean. These are known to take a course of three or four thousand miles in a season; serving for prey to whales, sharks, and the numerous flocks of water fowl that regularly wait to intercept their progress. These may be called fish of passage, and bear a strong analogy to birds of passage, both from their social disposition, and the immensity of their numbers. Of this kind are the cod, the haddock, the whiting, the mackerel, the tunny, the herring, and the pilchard. Other fish live in our vicinity, and reside on our coasts all the year round, or keep in the depths of the ocean, and are but seldom seen; but these, at stated seasons, visit their accustomed haunts with regular certainty, generally returning the same week in the succeeding year, and often the same day.

The stated returns, and the regular progress of these fish of passage, is one of the most extraordinary circumstances in the history of nature. What it is that impels them to such distant voyages, what directs their passage, what supports them by the way, and what sometimes prompts them to quit for several seasons one shore for another, and then return to their accustomed harbour; are questions that curiosity may ask, but philosophy can hardly resolve. We must dismiss inquiry, satisfied with the certainty of the facts.

The Cod seems to be the foremost of this wandering tribe, and is only found in our northern part of the world. This animal's chief place of resort is on the banks of Newfoundland, and the other sandbanks that lie off Cape Breton. That extensive flat

seems to be no other than the broad top of a sea mountain, extending for above five hundred miles long, and surrounded with a deeper sea. Hither the cod annually repair in numbers beyond the power of calculation, to feed on the quantity of worms that are to be found there in the sandy bottom. Here they are taken in such quantities that they supply all Europe with a considerable share of provision. The English have stages erected all along the shore for salting and drying them; and the fishermen, who take them with the hook and line, which is their method, draw them in as fast as they can throw out. This immense capture, however, makes but a very small diminution when compared to their numbers; and when their provision there is exhausted, or the season for propagation returns they go off to the polar seas, where they deposit their roes in full security. From thence want of food forces them, as soon as the first more southern seas are open, to repair southward for subsistence. Nor is this fish an unfrequent visitant upon our own shores; but the returns are not so regular, nor does the capture bear any proportion to that at Newfoundland.

The Haddock, the Whiting, and the Mackerel, are thought by some to be driven upon our coasts rather by their fears than their appetites, and it is to the pursuit of the larger fishes we owe their welcome visits. It is much more probable that they come for that food which is found in more plenty near the shore than farther out at sea. One thing is remarkable, that their migrations seem to be regularly conducted. The grand shoal of haddocks that comes periodically on the Yorkshire coasts, appeared there in a body on the 10th of December 1766, and exactly on the same day in the following year. This shoal extended from the shore near three miles in breadth, and in length for more than

forty. The limits of a shoal are precisely known; for if the fishermen put down their lines at the distance of more than three miles from shore, they catch nothing but dog-fish—a proof that the haddock is not there.

But of all migrating fish, the Herring and the Pilchard take the most adventurous voyages. Herrings are found in the greatest abundance in the highest northern latitudes. In those inaccessible seas, that are covered with ice for a great part of the year, the herring and pilchard find a quiet and sure retreat from all their numerous enemies: thither neither man, nor their still more destructive enemy, the fin-fish, or the cachalot, dares to pursue them. The quantity of insect food which those seas supply is very great; whence, in that remote situation, defended by the icy rigour of the climate, they live at ease, and multiply beyond expression. From this most desirable retreat Anderson supposes they would never depart, but that their numbers render it necessary for them to migrate, and as, with bees from a hive, they are compelled to seek for other retreats.

For this reason, the great colony is seen to set out from the Icy Sea about the middle of winter, composed of numbers that if all the men in the world were to be loaded with herrings, they would not carry the thousandth part away. But they no sooner leave their retreats but millions of enemies appear to thin their squadrons. The fin-fish and the cachalot swallow barrels at a yawn; the porpoise, the grampus, the shark, and the whole numerous tribe of dog-fish, find them an easy prey, and desist from making war upon each other: but still more, the unnumbered flocks of sea fowl that chiefly inhabit near the pole, watch the outset of their dangerous migration, and spread extensive ruin.

In this exigence, the defenceless emigrants find no other safety but by crowding closer together, and leaving to the outmost bands the danger of being the first devoured: thus, like sheep when frightened, that always run together in a body, and each finding some protection in being but one of many that are equally liable to invasion, they are seen to separate into shoals, one body of which moves to the west, and pours down along the coasts of America, as far south as Carolina, and but seldom farther. In Chesapeak Bay, the annual inundation of these fish is so great that they cover the shores in such quantities as to become a nuisance. Those that hold more to the east, and come down towards Europe, endeavour to save themselves from their merciless pursuers by approaching the first shore they can find; and that which first offers in their descent is the coast of Iceland, in the beginning of March. Upon their arrival on that coast, their phalanx, which has already suffered considerable diminutions, is nevertheless of amazing extent, depth, and closeness, covering an extent of shore as large as the island itself. The whole water seems alive, and is seen so black with them to a great distance, that the number seems inexhaustible. There the porpoise and the shark continue their depredations, and the birds devour what quantities they please. By these enemies the herrings are cooped up into so close a body, that a shovel, or any hollow vessel put into the water, takes them up without farther trouble.

That body which comes upon our coasts begins to appear off the Shetland Isles in April. These are the forerunners of the grand shoal which descends in June; while its arrival is easily announced by the number of its greedy attendants, the gannet, the gull, the shark, and the porpoise. When the main body is arrived, its breadth and depth is such as to alter

the very appearance of the ocean. It is divided into distinct columns, of five or six miles in length, and three or four broad; while the water before them curls up, as if forced out of its bed. Sometimes they sink for the space of ten or fifteen minutes, then rise again to the surface; and in bright weather reflect a variety of splendid colours, like a field bespangled with purple, gold, and azure.

The fishermen are ready prepared to give them a proper reception; and by nets made for the occasion, they take sometimes above two thousand barrels at a single draught.

From the Shetland Isles another body of this great army, where it divides, goes off to the western coasts of Ireland, where they meet with a second necessity of dividing. The one takes to the Atlantic, where it is soon lost in that extensive ocean; the other passes into the Irish Sea, and furnishes a very considerable capture to the natives.

In this manner the herrings, expelled from their native seas, seek those bays and shores where they can find food, and the best defence against their unmerciful pursuers of the deep. In general, the most inhabited shores are the places where the larger animals of the deep are least fond of pursuing, and these are chosen by the herring as an asylum from greater dangers. Thus, along the coasts of Norway, the German shores, and the northern shores of France, these animals are found punctual in their visitations. In these different places they produce their young, which, when come to some degree of maturity, attend the general motions. After the destruction of such numbers, the quantity that attempts to return is but small; and Anderson doubts whether they ever return.

Such is the account given of the migration of these fishes, by one who, of all others, was best ac-

quainted with their history; and yet many doubts arise in every part of the migration. The most obvious which has been made is, that though such numbers perish in their descent from the north, yet in comparison to those that survive, the account is trifling; and it is supposed, that of those taken by man, the proportion is not one to a million. Their regularly leaving the shore also at a stated time, would imply that they are not in their visits under the impulse of necessity. In fact, there seems one circumstance that shows these animals governed by a choice with respect to the shores they pitch upon, and not blindly driven from one shore to another. What I mean is, their fixing upon some shores for several seasons, or, indeed, for several ages together; and, after having regularly visited them every year, then capriciously forsaking them never more to return. The first great bank for herrings was along the shores of Norway. Before the year 1584, the number of ships from all parts of Europe that resorted to that shore exceeded some thousands. The quantity of herrings that were then assembled there was such, that a man who should put a spear in the water, as Olaus Magnus asserts, would see it stand on end, being prevented from falling. But soon after that period, these animals were seen to desert the Norway shores, and took up along the German coast, where the Hanse towns drove a very great trade by their capture and sale; but, for above a century, the herrings have in a great measure forsaken them, and their greatest colonies are seen in the British Channel, and upon the Irish shores. It is not easy to assign a cause for this seemingly capricious desertion; whether the number of their finny enemies, increasing along the northern coasts, may have terrified the herring tribe from their former places of resort, or whether the quantity of food be-

ing greater in the British Channel, may not allure them thither, is not easy to determine.

The Pilchard, which is a fish differing little from the herring, makes the coast of Cornwall its place of principal resort. Their arrival on that coast is soon proclaimed by their attendants the birds, and the larger fishes; and the whole country prepare to take the advantage of this treasure, providentially thrown before them. The natives sometimes enclose a bay of several miles extent with their nets, called *saines*. To direct them in their operations, there were some years ago (but I believe they are discontinued) several men placed on eminences near the shore, called *huers*, who, with brooms in their hands, gave signals where the nets were to be extended, and where the shoals of fishes lay: this they perceived by the colour of the water, which assumed a tincture from the shoals beneath. By these means they sometimes take twelve or fifteen hundred barrels of pilchards at a draught, and they place them in heaps on the shore. It often happens, that the quantity caught exceeds the salt or the utensils for curing them; and then they are carried off to serve for the purposes of manure. This fishery employs not only great numbers of men at sea, training them to naval affairs, but also numbers of women and children at land, in salting and curing the fish; in making boats, nets, ropes, and casks, for the purposes of taking or fitting them for sale. The poor are fed with the superfluity of the capture; the land is manured with the offals; the merchant finds the gain of commission and honest commerce; the fisherman, a comfortable subsistence from his toil. "Ships," says Dr. Borlasse, "are often freighted hither with salt, and into foreign countries with the fish, carrying off at the same time a part of our tin. The usual produce of the number of hogsheads ex-

ported for ten years, from 1747 to 1756 inclusive, amounted to near thirty thousand hogsheads each year: every hogshead has amounted, upon an average, to the price of one pound thirteen shillings and three pence. Thus the money paid for pilchards exported, has annually amounted to near fifty thousand pounds."

Whence these infinite numbers are derived, still remains obscure; but it will increase our wonder to be told, that so small a fish as the Stickleback, which is seldom above two inches long, and that one would think could easily find support in any water, is yet obliged to colonize, and leave its native fens in search of new habitations. Once every seventh or eighth year, amazing shoals of these appear in the river Welland, near Spalding, and come up the stream, forming one great column. They are supposed to be multitudes collected in some of the fens, till, overcharged with numbers, they are periodically obliged to migrate. An idea may be had of their numbers, when we are informed, that a man, employed by a farmer to take them for the purpose of manuring his grounds, has got, for a considerable time, four shillings a-day, by selling them at a half-penny a bushel!

Thus we see the amazing propagation of fishes along our own coasts and rivers; but their numbers bear no proportion to the vast quantities found among the islands of the Indian Ocean. The inhabitants of these countries are not under the necessity even of providing instruments for fishing; it is but going down to the shore, and there the fish are found in great numbers in the plashes that still continue to have water in them. In some of these places the quantity is so great, that they are left in shoals on those swamps, dried up by the sun, and their putrefaction contributes to render the country unhealthful.

This power of increasing in these animals exceeds our idea, as it would, in a very short time, outstrip all calculation. A single herring, if suffered to multiply unmolested and undiminished for twenty years, would show a progeny greater in bulk than ten such globes as that we live upon. But happily the balance of nature is exactly preserved, and their consumption is equal to their fecundity. For this reason we are to consider the porpoise, the shark, or the cod-fish, not in the light of plunderers and rivals, but of benefactors to mankind. Without their assistance, the sea would soon become overcharged with the burden of its own productions; and that element, which at present distributes health and plenty to the shore, would but load it with putrefaction.

In the propagation of all fish some degree of warmth seems absolutely necessary, not only to their preservation, but to the advancement of their posterity. Their spawn is always deposited in those places where the sun-beams may reach them, either at the bottom of shallow shores, or floating on the surface in deeper waters. A small degree of heat answers all the purposes of incubation, and the animal issues from the egg in its state of perfect formation, never to undergo any succeeding change.

Yet still I have some doubts whether most fish come from the egg completely formed. We know that in all the frog tribe, and many of the lizard kind, they are produced from the egg in an imperfect form. The tadpole, or young frog, with its enormous head and slender tail, are well known: a species of the lizard also, which is excluded from the shell without legs, only acquires them by degrees, and not till after some time does it put off its serpent form. It is probable that some kinds of fish in like manner suffer a change; and though it be too incon-

siderable to strike the fisherman or the inattentive spectator, yet it makes a very material difference to the naturalist, and would perhaps disarrange his most favourite systems. A slight alteration in the fins or bones that cover the gills, would overturn the whole fabric of the most applauded ichthyologist; and yet, as I observed, it is most probable that these minute alterations often take place.

As a proof of this, during the month of July there appear near Greenwich innumerable shoals of small fishes, which are known to the Londoners by the name of White Bait. It is universally agreed that they are the young of some fish; they are never seen but at this time of the year, and never found to have any roe, a circumstance that proves their not being come to maturity. The quantity is amazing; and the fish that produces them in such numbers must be in plenty, though it is not yet known what that fish is, as they correspond with no other species whatever. They most resemble the smelt in form; and yet they want a fin which that animal is never without. They cannot be the bleak, as they are never found in other rivers where the bleak breeds in great abundance. It is most probable, therefore, that they are the young of some animal not yet come to their perfect form, and therefore reducible to no present system.

The time that spinous fishes continue in the pea is in proportion to the size of the kind. It is a rule that chiefly holds through nature, that the larger the animals are, the longer they continue before exclusion. This, I say, holds generally through all nature, though it is not easy to assign a cause for so well known a truth. It may probably be, that as all large bodies take a longer time to grow hot than small ones, so the larger the egg, the longer influence of vital warmth it requires to reach through all its reces-

ses, and to unfold the dormant springs that wait to be put into motion.

The manner in which the eggs of fishes are impregnated is wholly unknown. All that obviously offers is, that in ponds the sexes are often seen together among the long grass at the edge of the water; that there they seem to struggle, and that during this time they are in a state of suffering; they grow thin, they lose their appetite, and their flesh becomes flabby; the scales of some grow rough, and they lose their lustre. On the contrary, when the time of coupling is over, their appetite returns, they re-assume their natural agility, and their scales become brilliant and beautiful.

Although the usual way with spinous fishes is to produce by spawn, yet there are some, such as the eel and the blenny, that are known to bring forth their young alive. Bowlker, who has written a treatise upon fishing, seems to determine the question relative to the viviparous production of eels, upon the authority of one or two credible witnesses. An eel, opened in the presence of several persons of credit, was found to have an infinite number of little creatures, closely wrapped up together in a lump about the size of a nutmeg, which being put into a basin of water, soon separated and swam about: yet still, whether these may not have been worms generated in the animal's body, remains a doubt; for there are scarcely any fishes that are not infested with worms in that manner.*

With respect to the growth of fishes it is observed, that, among carps particularly, the first year they grow to about the size of the leaf of a willow tree;

[* The eel was formerly thought to be oviparous; it is now known that it is viviparous. Mr. Chartwynd observes, that if the aperture under the belly of the eel, which looks red in the month of May, be cut open at that time, the young eels will be seen to come forth alive after the operation.

at two years, they are about four inches long. They grow but one inch more the third season, which is five inches. Those of four years old are about six inches, and seven after the fifth. From that to eight years old they are found to be large in proportion to the goodness of the pond, from eight to twelve inches. With regard to sea fish, the fishermen assure us, that a fish must be six years old before it is fit to be served up to table. They instance it in the growth of a mackerel. They assure us that those of a year old are as large as one's finger; that those of two years are about twice that length; at three and four years, they are that small kind of mackerel that have neither milts nor roes; and between five and six, they are those full grown fish that are served up to our tables. In the same manner, with regard to flat fishes, they tell us, that the turbot and barble at one year are about the size of a crown piece; the second year as large as the palm of one's hand; and at the fifth and sixth year they are large enough to be served up to table. Thus it appears that fish are a considerable time in coming to their full growth, and that they are a long time destroyed before it comes to their turn to be destroyers.*

All fish live upon each other in some state of their existence. Those with the largest mouths attack and devour the larger kinds; those whose mouths are less, lie in wait for the smaller fry; and even these chiefly subsist upon spawn. Of those which live in the ocean, of the spinous kinds, the Dorado is the most voracious. This is chiefly found in the tropical climates, and is at once the most active and the most beautiful of the finny region. It is about six feet long; the back all over enamelled with spots of a bluish-green and silver; the tail and fins of a

* *Traité des Pêches*, par Monsieur Duhamel. Sect. 3, p. 100.

gold colour; and all have a brilliancy of tint, that nothing but nature's pencil can attain to; the eyes are placed on each side of the head, large and beautiful, surrounded with circles of shining gold. In the seas where they are found, these fish are always in motion, and play round ships in full sail with ease and security: for ever either pursuing or pursued, they are seen continually in a state of warfare, either defending themselves against the shark, or darting after the smaller fishes. Of all others, the Flying-fish most abounds in these seas; and as it is a small animal, seldom growing above the size of a herring, it is chiefly sought by the dorado. Nature has furnished each, respectively, with the powers of pursuit and evasion. The dorado being above six feet long, yet not thicker than a salmon, and furnished with a full complement of fins, cuts its way through the water with amazing rapidity: on the other hand, the flying-fish is furnished with two pair of fins longer than the body, and these also moved by a stronger set of muscles than any other. This equality of power seems to furnish one of the most entertaining spectacles those seas can exhibit. The efforts to seize on the one side, and the arts of escaping on the other, are perfectly amusing. The dorado is seen upon this occasion darting after its prey, which will not leave the water, while it has the advantage of swimming, in the beginning of the chase. But, like a hunted hare, being tired at last, it then has recourse to another expedient for safety, by flight. The long fins, which began to grow useless in the water, are now exerted in a different manner and different direction to that in which they were employed in swimming: by this means the timid little animal rises from the water, and flutters over its surface for two or three hundred yards, till the muscles employed in moving the wings are enfee-



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1. Flying Fish - 2. Roach - 3. Carp - 4. Tench.

bled by that particular manner of exertion. By this time, however, they have acquired a fresh power of renewing their efforts in the water, and the animal is capable of proceeding with some velocity by swimming: still, however, the active enemy keeps it in view, and drives it again from the deep; till, at length, the poor little creature is seen to dart to shorter distances, to flutter with greater effort, and to drop down at last into the mouth of its fierce pursuer. But not the dorado alone, all animated nature seems combined against this little fish, which seems possessed of double powers, only to be subject to greater dangers. For though it should escape from its enemies of the deep, yet the tropic bird and the albatross are forever upon the wing to seize it. Thus pursued in either element, it sometimes seeks refuge from a new enemy; and it is not unfrequent for whole shoals of them to fall on ship-board, where they furnish man with an object of useless curiosity.

The warfare in fresh water is not carried on with such destructive activity, nor are the inhabitants of that element so numerous. It would seem that there is something more favourable to the fecundity of fishes in the ocean, than in an element less impregnated with salt. It has been the opinion of some philosophers, that all fish are natives of that great reservoir, and that only colonies have been sent up rivers, either through accident or the necessity of procuring subsistence. They have been led to this opinion by the superior fecundity of sea fish, which breed twenty to one; as well as by their superiority in strength and size over those of the same kind found in lakes and rivers. This is a matter too remotely speculative to be worth pursuing; but certain it is, that in fresh water fishes seem to abate much of their courage and rapacity, pursue each

other with less violence, and seem to be less powerfully actuated by all their appetites. The greediness with which sea fish devour the bait is prodigious, if compared with the manner they take it in fresh water. The lines of such fishermen as go off to sea, are coarse, thick, and clumsy, compared to what are used by those who fish at land. Their baits are seldom more than a piece of a fish, or the flesh of some quadruped, stuck on the hook in a bungling manner, and scarcely any art is employed to conceal the deception. But it is otherwise in fresh water: the lines must often be drawn to a hair-like fineness; they must be tintured of the peculiar colour of the stream; the bait must be formed with the nicest art, and even, if possible, to exceed the perfection of nature; yet still the fishes approach it with diffidence, and often swim round it with disdain. The cod on the banks of Newfoundland, the instant the hook, which is only baited with the guts of the animal last taken, is dropped into the water, darts to it at once, and the fishermen have but to pull up as fast as they throw down. But it is otherwise with those who fish in fresh water, they must wait whole hours in fruitless expectation; and *the patience of a fisherman* is proverbial among us.

This comparative neglect of food, which is found in all the tribes of fresh water fishes, renders them less turbulent and less destructive among each other. Of all these, the Pike is the most active and voracious; and our poets, whose business it is to observe the surface of nature, have called it the tyrant of the watery plain. In fact, in proportion to its strength and celerity, the pike does some mischief; but what are its efforts compared to those of the cachalot or the shark? they resemble the petty depredations of a robber, put in competition with the ravages of a conqueror! However, the pike will attack every



Engl. by G. B. Edwards

1 Salmon 2 Loach 3 Gull Pike 4 Pike 5 Char.

fish less than itself; and it is sometimes seen choaked by attempting to swallow such as are too large a morsel. It is immaterial of what species the animal it pursues appears to be, whether of another or its own, all are indiscriminately devoured; so that every fish owes its safety to its minuteness, its celerity, or its courage: nor does the pike confine itself to feed on fish and frogs, it will draw down the water-rat and the young ducks as they are swimming about. Gesner tells us of a mule that stooped to drink in the water, when a famished pike that was near seized it by the nose, nor was it disengaged till the beast flung it on shore. So great is their rapacity that they will contend with the otter for his prey, and even endeavour to force it from him. For this reason it is dreaded by all other fish; and the small ones show the same uneasiness and detestation at the presence of their tyrant, as the little birds do at the sight of a hawk or an owl. When the pike lies asleep near the surface, as is frequently the case, the lesser fish are observed to swim around it in vast numbers, with a mixture of caution and terror.

The other tribes of fresh water fish are much inferior to this animal in courage and rapacity: they chiefly subsist upon worms and insects, pursuing them at the bottom, or jumping after them to the surface of the water. In winter also their appetites seem entirely to forsake them; at least they continue in so torpid a state that few baits will tempt them to their destruction. At that season they forsake the shallow water, and seek those deep holes to be found in every river, where they continue for days together without ever appearing to move. The cold seems to affect them; for at that time they lie close to the bottom, where the water is most warm, and seldom venture out except the day be peculiarly fine, and

the shallows at the edges of the stream become tepid by the powerful rays of the sun. Indeed I have been assured, that some fishes may be rendered so torpid by the cold in the northern rivers as to be frozen up in the great masses of ice, in which they continue for several months together, seemingly without life or sensation, the prisoners of congelation, and waiting the approach of a warmer sun to restore them at once to life and liberty. Thus that cheerful luminary not only distributes health and vegetation to the productions of the earth, but is ardently sought even by the gelid inhabitants of the water.

As fish are enemies one to another, so each species is infested with worms of different kinds peculiar to itself. The great fish abound with them, and the little ones are not entirely free. These troublesome vermin lodge themselves either in the jaws and the intestines internally, or near the fins without. When fish are healthy and fat they are not much annoyed by them; but in winter, when they are lean or sickly, they then suffer very much.

Nor does the reputed longevity of this class secure them from their peculiar disorders. They are not only affected by too much cold, but there are frequently certain dispositions of the element in which they reside unfavourable to their health and propagation. Some ponds they will not breed in, however artfully disposed for supplying them with fresh recruits of water, as well as provision. In some seasons they are found to feel epidemic disorders, and are seen dead by the water-side, without any apparent cause; yet still they are animals of all others the most vivacious, and they often live and subsist upon such substances as are poisonous to the more perfect classes of animated nature.

It is not easy to determine whether the poisonous

qualities which many of them are found to possess, either when they wound our bodies externally with their spines, or when they are unwarily eaten at our tables, arise from this cause. That numbers of fishes inflict poisonous wounds, in the opinion of many, cannot be doubted. The concurrent testimony of mankind they think sufficient to contradict any reasonings upon this head, taken from anatomical inspection. The great pain that is felt from the sting given by the back fin of the weever, bears no proportion to the smallness of the instrument that inflicts the wound. How the poison is preserved, or how it is conveyed by the animal, it is not in our power to perceive; but its actual existence has been often attested by painful experience. In this instance we must decline conjecture, satisfied with history.

The fact of their being poisonous when eaten is equally notorious, and the cause equally inscrutable. My poor worthy friend Dr. Grainger, who resided for many years at St. Christopher's assured me, that of the fish caught of the same kind at one end of the island, some were the best and most wholesome in the world; while others taken at a different end were always dangerous, and most commonly fatal. We have a paper in the Philosophical Transactions, giving an account of the poisonous qualities of those found at New Providence, one of the Bahama Islands. The author assures us, that the greatest part of the fish of that dreary coast are all of a deadly nature, their smallest effects being to bring on a terrible pain in the joints, which, if terminating favourably, leaves the patient without any appetite for several days after. It is not those of the most deformed figure, or the most frightful to look at, that are alone to be dreaded; all kinds, at different times, are alike dangerous; and the same species which

has this day served for nourishment, is the next, if tried, found to be fatal!

This noxious quality has given rise to much speculation, and many conjectures. Some have supposed it to arise from the fishes on these shores eating of the machineel apple, a deadly vegetable poison that sometimes grows pendant over the sea; but the quantity of those trees growing in this manner bears no proportion to the extensive infection of the fish. L'abbat has ascribed it to their eating the galley-fish, which is itself most potently poisonous: but this only removes our wonder a little farther back; for it may be asked, with as just a cause for curiosity, how comes the galley-fish itself to procure its noxious qualities? Others have ascribed the poison of these fishes to their feeding upon copperas beds; but I do not know of any copperas mines found in America. In short, as we cannot describe the alembic by which the rattlesnake distils its malignity, nor the process by which the scorpion, that lives among roses, converts their sweets to venom, so we cannot discover the manner by which fishes become thus dangerous; and it is well for us of Europe that we can thus wonder in security. It is certain that, with us, if fishes, such as carp or tench, acquire any disagreeable flavour from the lakes in which they have been bred, this can be removed by their being kept some time in finer and better water: there they soon clear away all those disagreeable qualities their flesh had contracted, and become as delicate as if they had been always fed in the most cleanly manner. But this expedient is with us rather the precaution of luxury than the effect of fear: we have nothing to dread from the noxious qualities of our fish, for all the animals our waters furnish are wholesome.

Happy England! where the sea furnishes an abun-

dant and luxurious repast, and the fresh waters an innocent and harmless pastime; where the angler, in cheerful solitude, strolls by the edge of the stream, and fears neither the coiled snake nor the lurking crocodile; where he can retire at night, with his few trouts, to borrow the pretty description of old Walton, to some friendly cottage, where the landlady is good, and the daughter innocent and beautiful; where the room is cleanly with lavender in the sheets, and twenty ballads stuck about the wall! There he can enjoy the company of a talkative brother sportsman, have his trouts dressed for supper, tell tales, sing old tunes, or make a catch! There he can talk of the wonders of nature with learned admiration, or find some harmless sport to content him, and pass away a little time, without offence to God, or injury to man!

PART IV.

OF CRUSTACEOUS AND TESTACEOUS FISHES.

CHAPTER I.

THE DIVISION OF SHELL FISH.

IN describing the inhabitants of the water, a class of animals occur, that mankind, from the place of their residence, have been content to call fish; but that naturalists, from their formation, have justly agreed to be unworthy of the name. Indeed, the affinity many of this kind bear to the insect tribe,

may very well plead for the historian who ranks them rather as insects. However, the common language of a country must not be slightly invaded; the names of things may remain, if the philosopher be careful to give precision to our ideas of them.

There are two classes of animals, therefore, inhabiting the water, which commonly receive the name of fishes, entirely different from those we have been describing, and also very distinct from each other. These are divided by naturalists into Crustaceous and Testaceous animals: both, totally unlike fishes to appearance, seem to invert the order of nature; and as those have their bones on the inside, and their muscles hung upon them for the purposes of life and motion, these, on the contrary, have all their bony parts on the outside, and all their muscles within. Not to talk mysteriously—all who have seen a lobster or an oyster, perceive that the shell in these bears a strong analogy to the bones of other animals, and that by these shells the animal is sustained and defended.

Crustaceous fish, such as the crab and the lobster, have a shell, not quite of a stony hardness, but rather resembling a firm crust, and in some measure capable of yielding. Testaceous fishes, such as the oyster or cockle, are furnished with a shell of a stony hardness, very brittle, and incapable of yielding. Of the crustaceous kinds are the Lobster, the Crab, and the Tortoise: of the testaceous, that numerous tribe of Oysters, Muscles, Cockles, and Sea Snails, which offer with infinite variety.

The crustaceous tribe seems to hold the middle rank between fishes, properly so called, and those snail-like animals that receive the name of testaceous fishes. Their muscles are strong and firm, as in the former; their shell is self-produced, as among the latter. They have motion, and hunt for food with



1. Spongy Lobster 2. Trawl Crab 3. Sea Turtle
4. Land Tortoise.

great avidity, like the former: They are incapable of swimming, but creep along the bottom, like the latter: in short, they form the link that unites these two classes that seem so very opposite in their natures.

Of testaceous fishes we will speak hereafter. As to animals of the crustaceous kind, they are very numerous, their figure offers a hundred varieties; but as to their nature, they are obviously divided into two very distinct kinds, differing in their habits and their conformation. The chief of one kind is the Lobster; the chief of the other, the Tortoise. Under the Lobster we rank the Prawn, the Craw Fish, the Shrimp, the Sea Crab, the Land Crab, and all their varieties. Under the Sea Tortoise, the Turtle, the Hawksbill Turtle, the Land Tortoise, and their numerous varieties.

CHAPTER II.

CRUSTACEOUS ANIMALS OF THE LOBSTER KIND.

HOWEVER different in figure the Lobster and the Crab may seem, their manners and conformation are nearly the same. With all the voracious appetites of fishes, they are condemned to lead an insect life at the bottom of the water; and though pressed by continual hunger, they are often obliged to wait till accident brings them their prey. Though without any warmth in their bodies, or even without red blood circulating through their veins, they are animals wonderfully voracious. Whatever they seize upon that has life is sure to perish, though never so well defended; they even devour each other; and to increase our surprise still more, they may, in some

measure, be said to eat themselves, as they change their shell and their stomach every year, and their old stomach is generally the first morsel that serves to glut the new.*

The Lobster is an animal of so extraordinary a form, that those who first see it are apt to mistake the head for the tail; but it is soon discovered that the animal moves with its claws foremost; and that the part which plays within itself by joints, like a coat of armour, is the tail. The two great claws are the lobster's instruments of provision and defence: these, by opening like a pair of nippers, have great strength, and take a firm hold; they are usually notched like a saw, which still more increases their tenacity. Besides these powerful instruments, which may be considered as arms, the lobster has eight legs, four on each side; and these, with the tail, serve to give the animal its progressive and sideling motion. Between the two claws is the animal's head, very small, and furnished with eyes that seem like two black horny specks on each side; and these it has a power of advancing out of the socket, and drawing in at pleasure. The mouth, like that of insects, opens the long way of the body; not crosswise as with man and the higher race of animals. It is furnished with two teeth for the comminution of its food; but as these are not sufficient, it has three more in the stomach, one on each side and the other below. Between the two teeth there is a fleshy substance, in the shape of a tongue. The intestines consist of one long bowel, which reaches from the mouth to the vent; but what this animal differs in from all others is, that the spinal marrow is in the breast-bone. It is furnished with two long feel-

[* That lobsters and crabs change their shells annually is well known; but it is not yet ascertained that they also change their stomachs.]

ers or horns that issue on each side of the head, that seem to correct the dimness of its sight, and apprise the animal of its danger or of its prey. The tail, or that jointed instrument at the other end, is the grand instrument of motion; and with this it can raise itself in the water. Under this we usually see lodged the spawn in great abundance, every pea adhering to the next by a very fine filament, which is scarcely perceivable. The ovary, or place where the spawn is first produced, is backwards, towards the tail, where a red substance is always found, and which is nothing but a cluster of peas, that are yet too small for exclusion. From this receptacle there go two canals, that open on each side at the junctures of the shell, at the belly; and through these passages the peas descend to be excluded, and placed under the tail, where the animal preserves them from danger for some time, until they come to maturity; when being furnished with limbs and motion, they drop off into the water.

When the young lobsters leave the parent, they immediately seek for refuge in the smallest clefts of rocks, and in such like crevices at the bottom of the sea, where the entrance is but small, and the opening can be easily defended. There, without seeming to take any food, they grow larger in a few weeks' time, from the mere accidental substances which the water washes to their retreats. By this time also they acquire a hard, firm shell, which furnishes them with both offensive and defensive armour. They then begin to issue from their fortresses, and boldly creep along the bottom, in hopes of meeting with more diminutive plunder. The spawn of fish, the smaller animals of their own kind, but chiefly the worms that keep at the bottom of the sea, supply them with plenty. They keep in this manner close among the rocks, busily employed in scratching

up the sand with their claws for worms, or surprizing such heedless animals as fall within their grasp: thus they have little to apprehend, except from each other; for in them, as among fishes, the large are the most formidable of all other enemies to the small.

But this life of abundance and security is soon to have a most dangerous interruption; for the body of the lobster still continuing to increase, while its shell remains unalterably the same, the animal becomes too large for its habitation, and imprisoned within the crust that has naturally gathered round it, there comes on a necessity of getting free. The young of this kind, therefore, that grow faster, as I am assured by the fishermen, change their shell oftener than the old, who come to their full growth, and who remain in the same shell often for two years together. In general, however, all these animals change their shell once a-year; and this is not only a most painful operation, but also subjects them to every danger. Their moulting season is generally about the beginning of summer, at which time their food is in plenty, and their strength and vigour in the highest perfection. But soon all their activity ceases; they are seen forsaking the open parts of the deep, and seeking some retired situation among the rocks, or some outlet where they may remain in safety from the attacks of their various enemies. For some days before their change, the animal discontinues its usual voraciousness; it is no longer seen laboriously harrowing up the sand at the bottom, or fighting with others of its kind, or hunting its prey; it lies torpid and motionless, as if in anxious expectation of the approaching change. Just before casting its shell, it throws itself upon its back, strikes its claws against each other, and every limb seems to tremble; its feelers are agitated, and the whole body is in violent motion; it then swells itself in an unusual manner,

and at last the shell is seen beginning to divide at its junctures; particularly it opens at the junctures of the belly, where, like a pair of jumps, it was before but seemingly united. It also seems turned inside out, and its stomach comes away with its shell. After this, by the same operation, it disengages itself of the claws, which burst at the joints; the animal, with a tremulous motion, casting them off as a man would kick off a boot that was too big for him.

Thus, in a short time, this wonderful creature finds itself at liberty; but in so weak and enfeebled a state, that it continues for several hours motionless. Indeed, so violent and painful is the operation, that many of them die under it; and those which survive are in such a weakly state for some time, that they neither take food nor venture from their retreats. Immediately after this change, they have not only the softness, but the timidity of a worm. Every animal of the deep is then a powerful enemy, which they can neither escape nor oppose; and this, in fact, is the time when the dog-fish, the cod, and the ray, devour them by hundreds. But this state of defenceless imbecility continues for a very short time: the animal in less than two days, is seen to have the skin that covered its body grown almost as hard as before; its appetite is seen to increase; and, strange to behold! the first object that tempts its gluttony is its own stomach, which it so lately was disengaged from. This it devours with great eagerness, and some time after eats even its former shell. In about forty-eight hours, in proportion to the animal's health and strength, the new shell is perfectly formed, and as hard as that which was but just thrown aside.

To contribute to the speedy growth of the shell, it is supposed by some that the lobster is supplied with a very extraordinary concretion within its body, that is converted into the shelly substance. It is a

chalky substance, found in the lower part of the stomach of all lobsters, improperly called crab's-eyes, and sold under that title in the shops. About the time the lobster quits its shell, the teeth in the stomach break these stones to pieces, and the fluids contained therein dissolve them. This fluid, which still remains in the new stomach, is thought to be replete with a petrifying quality, proper for forming a new shell: however, the concreting power that first formed these, shows a sufficient power in the animal to produce also the shell; and it is going but a short way in the causes of things, when we attempt to explain one wonder by another.

When the lobster is completely equipped in its new shell, it then appears how much it has grown in the space of a very few days: the dimensions of the old shell being compared with those of the new, it will be found that the creature is increased above a third in its size; and, like a boy that has outgrown his clothes, it seems wonderful how the deserted shell was able to contain so great an animal as entirely fills up the new.

The creature thus furnished, not only with a complete covering, but also a greater share of strength and courage, ventures more boldly among the animals at the bottom; and not a week passes that in its combats it does not suffer some mutilation. A joint, or even a whole claw, is sometimes snapped off in these encounters. At certain seasons of the year these animals never meet each other without an engagement. In these, to come off with the loss of a leg, or even a claw, is considered as no great calamity; the victor carries off the spoil to feast upon at leisure, while the other retires from the defeat to wait for a thorough repair. This repair it is not long in procuring. From the place where the joint of the claw was cut away, is seen in a most surprising man-

ner to bourgeon, out the beginning of a new claw. This, if observed, at first is small and tender; but grows, in the space of three weeks, to be almost as large and as powerful as the old one. I say almost as large, for it never arrives to the full size; and this is the reason we generally find the claws of lobsters of unequal magnitude.

After what has been thus described, let us pause a little to reflect on the wonders this extraordinary creature offers to our imagination! An animal without bones on the inside, yet furnished with a stomach capable of digesting the hardest substances, the shells of muscles, of oysters, and even its own! An animal gaining a new stomach and a new shell at stated intervals! Without red blood circulating through the body, and yet apparently vigorous and active! But, most strange of all, an animal endowed with a vital principle that furnishes out such limbs as have been cut away, and keeps it, though continually combating, in constant repair to renew its engagements! These are but a small part of the wonders of the deep, where nature sports without a spectator.

Of this extraordinary, yet well-known animal, there are many varieties, with some differences in the claws, but little in the habits or conformation. It is found above three feet long; and if we may admit the shrimp and the prawn into the class, though unfurnished with claws, it is seen not above an inch. These all live in the water, and can bear its absence for but a few hours. The shell is black when taken out of the water, but turns red by boiling. The most common way of taking the lobster is in a basket or pot, as the fishermen call it, made of wicker-work, in which they put the bait, and then throw it to the bottom of the sea, in six or ten fathoms water. The lobsters creep into this for the sake of the bait, but are not able to get out again. The river craw-

fish differs little from the lobster, but that the one will live only in fresh water, and the other will thrive only in the sea.

The Crab is an animal found equally in fresh and salt water, as well upon land as in the ocean. In shape it differs very much from the lobster, but entirely resembles it in habits and conformation. The tail in this animal is not so apparent as in the former, being that broad flap that seems to cover a part of the belly, and when lifted discovers the peas or spawn, situated there in great abundance. It resembles the lobster in the number of its claws, which are two, and its legs, which are eight, four on either side. Like the lobster, it is a bold, voracious animal; and such an enmity do crabs bear each other, that those who carry them for sale to market, often tie their claws with strings to prevent their fighting and maiming themselves by the way. In short, it resembles the lobster in every thing but the amazing bulk of its body compared to the size of its head and the length of its intestines, which have many convolutions.

As the crab, however, is found upon land as well as in water, the peculiarity of its situation produces a difference in its habitudes, which it is proper to describe. The Land Crab is found in some of the warmer regions of Europe, and in great abundance in all the tropical climates in Africa and America. They are of various kinds, and endued with various properties; some being healthful, delicious, and nourishing food, others poisonous or malignant to the last degree; some are not above half an inch broad, others are found a foot over; some are of a dirty brown, and others beautifully mottled. That animal called the Violet Crab of the Caribbee Islands, is the most noted, both for its shape, the delicacy of its flesh, and the singularity of its manners.

The Violet Crab somewhat resembles two hands cut through the middle and joined together; for each side looks like four fingers, and the two nippers or claws resemble the thumbs. All the rest of the body is covered with a shell as large as a man's hand, and bunched in the middle, on the fore-part of which there are two long eyes of the size of a grain of barley, as transparent as crystal and as hard as horn. A little below these is the mouth, covered with a sort of barbs, under which there are two broad sharp teeth as white as snow. They are not placed, as in other animals, crosswise, but in the opposite direction, not much unlike the blades of a pair of scissors. With these teeth they can easily cut leaves, fruits, and rotten wood, which is their usual food. But their principal instrument for cutting and seizing their food is their nippers, which catch such a hold, that the animal loses the limb sooner than its grasp, and is often seen scampering off, having left its claw still holding fast upon the enemy. The faithful claw seems to perform its duty, and keeps for above a minute fastened upon the finger, while the crab is making off.* In fact it loses no great matter by leaving a leg or an arm, for they soon grow again, and the animal is found as perfect as before.

This, however, is the least surprising part of this creature's history; and what I am going to relate, were it not as well known and as confidently confirmed as any other circumstance in natural history, might well stagger our belief. These animals live not only in a kind of orderly society in their retreats in the mountains, but regularly once a-year march down to the sea-side in a body of some millions at a time. As they multiply in great numbers, they choose the months of April or May to begin their expedition; and then sally out by thousands from the stumps of

* Brown's Jamaica, p. 423.

hollow trees, from the clefts of rocks, and from the holes which they dig for themselves under the surface of the earth. At that time the whole ground is covered with this band of adventurers; there is no setting down one's foot without treading upon them.* The sea is their place of destination, and to that they direct their march with right-lined precision. No geometrician could send them to their destined station by a shorter course; they neither turn to the right nor left, whatever obstacles intervene; and even if they meet with a house, they will attempt to scale the walls to keep the unbroken tenor of their way. But though this be the general order of their route, they upon other occasions are compelled to conform to the face of the country; and if it be intersected by rivers, they are then seen to wind along the course of the stream. The procession sets forward from the mountains with the regularity of an army under the guidance of an experienced commander. They are commonly divided into three battalions; of which the first consists of the strongest and boldest males, that, like pioneers, march forward to clear the route and face the greatest dangers. These are often obliged to halt for want of rain, and go into the most convenient encampment till the weather changes. The main body of the army is composed of females, which never leave the mountains till the rain is set in for some time, and then descend by regular battalia, being formed into columns of fifty paces broad, and three miles deep, and so close that they almost cover the ground. Three or four days after this the rear-guard follows; a straggling undisciplined tribe, consisting of males and females, but neither so robust nor so numerous as the former. The night is their chief time of proceeding: but if it rains by day, they do not fail to profit by the occasion, and they con-

* Lebat, Voyage aux Isles Françaises, vol. ii. p. 221.

tinue to move forward in their slow uniform manner. When the sun shines and is hot upon the surface of the ground, they then make an universal halt, and wait till the cool of the evening. When they are terrified, they march back in a confused disorderly manner, holding up their nippers, with which they sometimes tear off a piece of the skin, and then leave the weapon where they inflicted the wound. They even try to intimidate their enemies, for they often clatter their nippers together, as if it were to threaten those that come to disturb them. But though they thus strive to be formidable to man, they are much more so to each other; for they are possessed of one most unsocial property, which is, that if any of them by accident is maimed in such a manner as to be incapable of proceeding, the rest fall upon and devour it on the spot, and then pursue their journey.

When after a fatiguing march, and escaping a thousand dangers, (for they are sometimes three months in getting to the shore,) they have arrived at their destined port, they prepare to cast their spawn. The peas are as yet within their bodies, and not excluded, as is usual in animals of this kind, under the tail; for the creature waits for the benefit of the sea water to help the delivery. For this purpose, the crab has no sooner reached the shore, than it eagerly goes to the edge of the water, and lets the waves wash over its body two or three times. This seems only a preparation for bringing the spawn to maturity; for without farther delay they withdraw to seek a lodging upon land: in the mean time, the spawn grows larger, is excluded out of the body, and sticks to the barbs under the flap, or more properly the tail. This bunch is seen as big as a hen's egg, and exactly resembling the roes of herrings. In this state of pregnancy, they once more seek the shore for the last time, and shaking off their spawn into the water,

leave accident to bring it to maturity. At this time whole shoals of hungry fish are at the shore in expectation of this annual supply; the sea to a great distance seems black with them, and about two-thirds of the crabs' eggs are immediately devoured by these rapacious invaders. The eggs that escape are hatched under the sand; and soon after millions at a time of these little crabs are seen quitting the shore, and slowly travelling up to the mountains.

The old ones, however, are not so active to return; they have become so feeble and lean, that they can hardly creep along, and the flesh at that time changes its colour. The most of them, therefore, are obliged to continue in the flat parts of the country till they recover, making holes in the earth, which they cover at the mouth with leaves and dirt, so that no air may enter. There they throw off their old shells, which they leave as it were quite whole, the place where they opened on the belly being unseen. At that time they are quite naked, and almost without motion, for six days together, when they become so fat as to be delicious food. They have then under their stomachs four large white stones, which gradually decrease in proportion as the shell hardens, and when they come to perfection are not to be found. It is at that time that the animal is seen slowly making its way back; and all this is most commonly performed in the space of six weeks.

This animal when possessed of its retreats in the mountains is impregnable; for only subsisting upon vegetables, it seldom ventures out; and its habitation being in the most inaccessible places, it remains for a great part of the season in perfect security. It is only when impelled by the desire of bringing forth its young, and when compelled to descend into the flat country, that it is taken. At that time the natives wait for its descent in eager expectation, and destroy

thousands; but disregarding the bodies, they only seek for that small spawn which lies on each side of the stomach within the shell, of about the thickness of a man's thumb. They are much more valuable upon their return, after they have cast their shell; for being covered with a skin resembling soft parchment, almost every part except the stomach may be eaten. They are taken in their holes by feeling for them in the ground with an instrument; they are sought after by night, when on their journey, with flambeaux. The instant the animal perceives itself attacked, it throws itself on its back, and with its claws pinches most terribly whatever it happens to fasten on. But the dexterous crab-catcher takes them by the hinder legs, in such a manner that its nippers cannot touch him, and thus he throws it into his bag. Sometimes also they are caught when they take refuge at the bottom of holes, in rocks by the sea-side, by clapping a stick at the mouth of the hole, which prevents their getting out; and then, soon after, the tide coming enters the hole, and the animal is found upon its retiring drowned in its retreat.

These crabs are of considerable advantage to the natives, and the slaves very often feed entirely upon them. In Jamaica, where they are found in great plenty, they are considered as one of the greatest delicacies of the place. Yet still the eating of them is attended with some danger; for even of this kind many are found poisonous, being fed, as it is thought, upon the manchineel apple; and whenever they are found under that noxious plant, they are always rejected with caution. It is thus with almost all the productions of those luxurious climates: however tempting they may be to the appetite, they but too often are found destructive; and scarce a delicacy among them that does not carry its own alloy.

The descent of these creatures for such impor-

tant purposes deserves our admiration; but there is an animal of the lobster kind that annually descends from its mountains in like manner, and for purposes still more important and various. Its descent is not only to produce an offspring, but to provide itself a covering; not only to secure a family, but to furnish a house. The animal I mean is the Soldier Crab, which has some similitude to the lobster, if divested of its shell. It is usually about four inches long, has no shell behind, but is covered down to the tail with a skin, terminating in a point. It is, however, armed with strong hard nippers before, like the lobster; and one of them is as thick as a man's thumb, and pinches most powerfully. It is, as I said, without a shell to any part except its nippers; but what nature has denied this animal, it takes care to supply by art; and taking possession of the deserted shell of some other animal, it resides in it, till, by growing too large for its habitation, it is under a necessity of change. It is a native of the West India Islands; and like the former, it is seen every year descending from the mountains to the sea-shore, to deposit its spawn, and to provide itself with a new shell. This is a most bustling time with it, having so many things to do; and, in fact, very busy it appears. It is very probable that its first care is to provide for its offspring before it attends to its own wants; and it is thought, from the number of little shells which it is seen examining, that it deposits its spawn in them, which thus is placed in perfect security till the time of exclusion.

However this be, the Soldier is in the end by no means unmindful of itself. It is still seen in its old shell, which it appears to have considerably outgrown; for a part of the naked body is seen at the mouth of it, which the habitation is too small to hide. A shell, therefore, is to be found large enough to cover the whole body, and yet not so large as to be un-

manageable and unwieldy. To answer both these ends is no easy matter, nor the attainment of a slight inquiry. The little soldier is seen busily parading the shore along that line of pebbles and shells that is formed by the extremest wave; still, however, dragging its old incommodious habitation at its tail, unwilling to part with one shell, even though a troublesome appendage, till it can find another more convenient. It is seen stopping at one shell, turning it and passing it by, going on to another, contemplating that for a while, and then slipping its tail from its old habitation, to try on the new. This also is found to be inconvenient, and it quickly returns to its old shell again. In this manner it frequently changes, till at last it finds one light, roomy, and commodious; to this it adheres, though the shell be sometimes so large as to hide the body of the animal, claws and all.*

Yet it is not till after many trials, but many combats also, that the soldier is thus completely equipped; for there is often a contest between two of them for some well-looking favourite shell for which they are rivals. They both endeavour to take possession; they strike with their claws, they bite each other, till the weakest is obliged to yield, by giving up the object of dispute. It is then that the victor immediately takes possession, and parades it in his new conquest three or four times back and forward upon the strand before his envious antagonist.

When this animal is taken it sends forth a feeble cry, endeavouring to seize the enemy with its nippers; which if it fastens upon, it will sooner die than quit the grasp. The wound is very painful, and not easily cured. For this reason, and as it is not much esteemed for its flesh, it is generally permitted to return to its old retreat in the mountains in safety. There it continues till the necessity of changing

* Pere du Tertre.

once more, and the desire of producing an offspring, expose it to fresh dangers the year ensuing.

CHAPTER III.

OF THE TORTOISE AND ITS KINDS.

HAVING described the lobster and the crab as animals in some measure approaching to the insect tribes, it will appear like injustice to place the Tortoise among the number, that, from its strength, its docility, and the warm red blood that is circulating in its veins, deserves to be ranked even above the fishes. But as this animal is covered, like the lobster, with a shell; as it is of an amphibious nature, and brings forth its young from the egg without hatching; we must be content to degrade it among animals that in every respect it infinitely surpasses.

Tortoises are usually divided into those that live upon land, and those that subsist in the water; and use has made a distinction even in the name, the one being called Tortoises, the other Turtles. However, Seba has proved that all tortoises are amphibious; that the land tortoise will live in the water, and that the sea turtle can be fed upon land. A land tortoise was brought to him, that was caught in one of the canals of Amsterdam, which he kept for half a year in his house, where it lived very well contented in both elements. When in the water it remained with its head above the surface; when placed in the sun, it seemed delighted with its beams, and continued immoveable while it felt their warmth. The difference, therefore, in these animals, arises rather from their habits than their conformation; and, upon examination, there will be less variety found between

them, than between birds that live upon land and those that swim upon the water.

Yet though nature seems to have made but few distinctions among these animals, as to their conformation, yet in their habits they are very dissimilar, as these result from the different qualities of their food, and the different sorts of enemies they have to avoid or encounter. I will therefore exhibit their figure and conformation under one common description, by which their slight differences will be more obvious; and then I will give a separate history of the manners of each, as naturalists and travellers have taught us.

All tortoises, in their external form, pretty much resemble each other; their outward covering being composed of two great shells, the one laid upon the other, and only touching at the edges: however, when we come to look closer, we shall find that the upper shell is composed of no less than thirteen pieces, which are laid flat upon the ribs, like the tiles of a house, by which the shell is kept arched and supported. The shells both above and below that, which seem, to an inattentive observer, to make each but one piece, are bound together at the edges by very strong and hard ligaments, yet with some small share of motion. There are two holes at either edge of this vaulted body; one for a very small head, shoulders, and arms, to peep through; the other, at the opposite edge, for the feet and the tail. These shells the animal is never disengaged from; and they serve for its defence against every creature but man.

The tortoise has but a small head with no teeth, having only two bony ridges in the place, serrated and hard. These serve to gather and grind its food; and such is the amazing strength of the jaws, that it is impossible to open them where they have once fastened. Even when the head is cut off the jaws

still keep their hold, and the muscles in death preserve a tenacious rigidity. Indeed, the animal is possessed of equal strength in all other parts of its body: the legs, though short, are inconceivably strong; and torpid as the tortoise may appear, it has been known to carry five men standing upon its back with apparent ease and unconcern. Its manner of going forward is by moving its legs one after the other; and the claws with which the toes are furnished sink into the ground like the nails of an iron-shod wheel, and assist its progression.

With respect to its internal parts, not to enter into minute anatomical disquisitions, it may not be improper to observe, that the blood circulates in this animal as in some cartilaginous fishes, and something in the manner of a child in the womb. The greatest quantity of the blood passes directly from the *vena cava* into the left ventricle of the heart, which communicates with the right ventricle by an opening, while the auricles only receive what the ventricles seem incapable of admitting. Thus the blood is driven by a very short passage through the circulation, and the lungs seem to lend only occasional assistance. From this conformation the animal can subsist for some time without using the lungs or breathing; at least, the lungs are not so necessary an instrument for driving on the circulation as with us.

Such is the general structure of this animal, whether found to live by land or water. With regard to the differences of these animals, the land tortoise, from its habits of making use of its feet in walking, is much more nimble upon land than the sea turtle: the land tortoise, if thrown upon its back, by rocking and balancing its body like a child rocking in a cradle, at last turns itself upon its face again; but the turtle, when once turned, continues without

being able to move from the spot. In comparing the feet also of these animals, the nails upon the toes of one that has been long used to scratch for subsistence upon land are blunt and worn; while those that have only been employed in swimming are sharp and long, and have more the similitude of fins. The brain of the land tortoise is but small, and yet it is three times as large as that of the turtle. There is a difference also in the shape of their eggs, and in the passage by which they are excluded; for in the land tortoise the passage is so narrow that the egg conforms to the shape of the aperture, and though round when in the body, yet becomes much more oblong than those of fowls upon being excluded, otherwise they would never be able to pass through the bony canal by which they are protruded: on the contrary, the passage is wider in the turtle, and therefore its eggs are round. These are the most striking distinctions; but that which is most known is their size, the land tortoise often not exceeding three feet long by two feet broad, the sea turtle being sometimes from five to seven feet long. The size, however, is but a fallacious distinction, since land tortoises in some parts of India grow to a very great magnitude, though probably not, as the ancients affirm, big enough for a single shell to serve for the covering of a house.

But if the different kinds of tortoises are not sufficiently distinguished by their figure, they are very obviously distinguishable by their methods of living. The land tortoise lives in holes dug in the mountains, or near marshy lakes; the sea turtle in cavities of rocks, and extensive pastures at the bottom of the sea. The tortoise makes use of its feet to walk with, and burrow in the ground; the turtle chiefly uses its feet in swimming, or creeping at the bottom.

the heart by a short passage, and that it did not, as anatomists express it, go through the great circulation. With us and quadrupeds the blood goes from the veins to the heart, from the heart it is sent to be spread over the lungs, from the lungs it returns to the heart again, and from thence it goes to the arteries, to be distributed through the whole body. But its passage in the tortoise is much shorter; for from the veins it goes to the heart, then leaving the lungs entirely out of its course, it takes a short cut, if I may so say, into the beginning of the arteries, which send it round the animal frame. From hence we see the lungs are left out of the circulation, and consequently the animal is capable of continuing to live without continuing to breathe. In this it resembles the bat, the serpent, the mole, and the lizard: like them, it takes up its dark residence for the winter; and at that time, when its food is no longer in plenty, it happily becomes insensible to the want. Nor is it unmindful to prepare its retreat, and make it as convenient as possible; it is sometimes buried two or three feet in the ground, with its hole furnished with moss, grass, and other substances, as well to keep the retreat warm, as to serve for food in case it should prematurely wake from its state of stupefaction. But it must not be supposed, that while it is thus at rest it totally discontinues to breathe; on the contrary, an animal of this kind if put into a close vessel without air will soon be stifled, though not so readily as in a state of vigour and activity.

From this dormant state the tortoise is awakened by the genial return of spring, and is thought not to be much wasted by its long confinement. To animals that live a hundred and fifty years, a sleep of six months is but as the nap of a night. All the actions of these long-lived creatures seem formed upon a scale answering the length of their existence:

their slumbers are for a season; their motions are slow, and require time in every action; even the act of procreation, which among other animals is performed in a very few minutes, is with them the business of days. About a month after their enlargement from a torpid state they prepare to transmit their posterity, and both continue joined for near a month together. The eggs of the female are contained in the ovary above the bladder, which is extremely large; and these are, before their exclusion, round and naked, with some spots of red: after they are laid, however, they assume another form, being smaller and longer than those of a hen. This alteration in the figure of the eggs most probably proceeds from the narrowness of the bony passage through which they are excluded. Swammerdam, who compared the size of the eggs taken out of this animal's body with the diameter of the passage through which they were excluded, was of opinion that the bones themselves separated from each other, and closed again; but, in my opinion, it is more probable to suppose that the eggs, and not the bones, alter their form. Certain it is that they are round in the body, and that they are oval upon being protruded.

The eggs of all the tortoise kind, like those of birds, are furnished with a yolk and a white; but the shell is different, being somewhat like those soft eggs that hens exclude before their time; however, this shell is much thicker and stronger, and is a longer time in coming to maturity in the womb. The land tortoise lays but a few in number, if compared to the sea turtle, who deposits from a hundred and fifty to two hundred in a season.

The amount of the land tortoise's eggs I have not been able to learn; but, from the scarceness of the animal, I am apt to think they cannot be very numerous. When it prepares to lay, the female scratches

a slight depression in the earth, generally in a warm situation, where the beams of the sun have their full effect: there depositing her eggs, and covering them with grass and leaves, she forsakes them, to be hatched by the heat of the season. The young tortoises are generally excluded in about twenty-six days; but as the heat of the weather assists, or its coldness retards incubation, sometimes it happens that there is a difference of two or three days. The little animals no sooner leave the egg, than they seek for their provision, entirely self-taught; and their shell, with which they are covered from the beginning, expands and grows larger with age. As it is composed of a variety of pieces, they are all capable of extension at their sutures, and the shell admits of increase in every direction. It is otherwise with those animals like the lobster, whose shell is composed all of one piece that admits of no increase, which, when the tenant is too big for the habitation, must burst the shell, and get another. But the covering of the tortoise grows larger in proportion as the internal parts expand; in some measure resembling the growth of the human skull, which is composed of a number of bones, increasing in size in proportion to the quantity of the brain. All tortoises, therefore, as they never change their shell, must have it formed in pieces; and though, in some that have been described by painters or historians, these marks have not been attended to, yet we can have no doubt that they are general to the whole tribe.

It is common enough to take these animals into gardens, as they are thought to destroy insects and snails in great abundance. We are even told that, in hot countries, they are admitted into a domestic state, as they are great destroyers of bugs. How so large and heavy an animal is capable of being expert at such petty prey, is not easy to conceive; but

I have seen several of them about gentlemen's houses, that, in general, appear torpid, harmless, and even fond of employment. Children have sometimes got upon the back of a tortoise; and such was the creature's strength, that it never seemed overloaded, but moved off with its burden to where it expected to be fed, but would carry them no further. In winter they regularly find out a place to sleep in; but in those warm countries in which the tortoise is found larger, and in greater plenty than in Europe, they live without retiring the whole year round.

The Sea Tortoise, or Turtle, as it is now called, is generally found larger than the former. This element is possessed with the property of increasing the magnitude of those animals which are common to the land and the ocean. The sea pike is larger than that of fresh water; the sea bear is larger than that of the mountains; and the sea turtle exceeds the land tortoise in the same proportion. It is of different magnitudes, according to its different kinds; some turtles being not above fifty pounds weight, and some above eight hundred.

The great Mediterranean Turtle is the largest of the turtle kind with which we are acquainted. It is found from five to eight feet long, and from six to nine hundred pounds weight. But, unluckily, its utility bears no proportion to its size, as it is unfit for food, and sometimes poisons those who eat it. The shell also, which is a tough strong integument, resembling a hide, is unfit for all serviceable purposes. One of these animals was taken in the year 1729, at the mouth of the Loire, in nets that were not designed for so large a capture. This turtle, which was of enormous strength, by its own struggles involved itself in the nets in such a manner as to be incapable of doing mischief; yet even thus shackled, it appeared terrible to the fishermen, who

were at first for flying; but finding it impotent, they gathered courage to drag it on shore, where it made a most horrible bellowing; and when they began to knock it on the head with their gaffs, it was to be heard at half a mile's distance. They were still further intimidated by its nauseous and pestilential breath, which so powerfully affected them that they were near fainting. This animal wanted but four inches of being eight feet long, and was above two feet over: its shell more resembled leather than the shell of a tortoise; and, unlike all other animals of this kind, it was furnished with teeth in each jaw, one rank behind another, like those of a shark: its feet also, different from the rest of this kind, wanted claws; and the tail was quite disengaged from the shell, and fifteen inches long, more resembling that of a quadruped than a tortoise. This animal was then unknown upon the coasts of France; and was supposed to have been brought into the European seas in some India ship, that might be wrecked upon her return. Since that, however, two or three of these animals have been taken upon the coasts; two in particular upon those of Cornwall, in the year 1756, the largest of which weighed eight hundred pounds; and one upon the Isle of Rhé, but two years before that, weighed between seven and eight hundred. One, most probably of this kind also, was caught about thirty years ago near Scarborough, and a good deal of company was invited to feast upon it: a gentleman, who was one of the guests, told the company that it was a Mediterranean turtle, and not wholesome; but a person who was willing to satisfy his appetite at the risk of his life, eat of it: he was seized with a violent vomiting and purging; but his constitution overpowered the malignity of the poison.

These are a formidable and useless kind, if compared to the turtle caught in the South Seas and the

Indian Ocean. These are of different kinds; not only unlike each other in form, but furnishing man with very different advantages. They are usually distinguished by sailors into four kinds; the Trunk Turtle, the Loggerhead, the Hawksbill, and the Green Turtle.

The Trunk Turtle is commonly larger than the rest, and its back higher and rounder. The flesh of this is rank and not very wholesome.

The Loggerhead is so called from the largeness of its head, which is much bigger in proportion than that of the other kinds. The flesh of this also is very rank, and not eaten but in case of necessity.

The Hawksbill Turtle is the least of the four, and has a long and small mouth, somewhat resembling the bill of a hawk. The flesh of this also is very indifferent eating; but the shell serves for the most valuable purposes. This is the animal that supplies the tortoise-shell, of which such a variety of beautiful trinkets are made. The substance of which the shells of other turtles are composed is thin and porous; but that of the hawksbill is firm, and, when polished, is beautifully marbled. They generally carry about three pounds; but the largest of all, six pounds. The shell consists, as in all the kind, of thirteen leaves or plates, of which eight are flat, and five hollow. They are raised and taken off by means of fire, which is made under the shell, after the flesh is taken out. As soon as the heat affects the leaves, they start from the ribs, and are easily raised with the point of a knife. By being scraped and polished on both sides, they become beautifully transparent; or are easily cast into what form the workman thinks proper, by making them soft and pliant in warm water, and then screwing them in a mould, like a medal: however, the shell is most beautiful before it undergoes this last operation.

But of all animals of the tortoise kind, the Green Turtle is the most noted, and the most valuable. The delicacy of its flesh, and its nutritive qualities, together with the property of being easily digested, were, for above a century, known only to our seamen, and the inhabitants of the coasts where they were taken. It was not till by slow degrees the distinction came to be made between such as were malignant and such as were wholesome. The controversies and contradictions of our old travellers were numerous upon this head; some asserting that the turtle was delicious food, and others, that it was actual poison. Dampier, that rough seaman, who has added more to natural history than half of the philosophers that went before him, appears to be the first who informed us of their distinctions; and that while the rest might be valuable for other purposes, the green turtle alone was chiefly prized for the delicacy of its flesh. He never imagined, however, that this animal would make its way to the luxurious tables of Europe; for he seems chiefly to recommend it as salted up for ship's provision in case of necessity.

At present the turtle is very well known among us; and is become the favourite food of those that are desirous of eating a great deal without the danger of surfeiting. This is a property the flesh of the turtle seems peculiarly possessed of; and by the importation of it alive among us, gluttony is freed from one of its greatest restraints. The flesh of the turtle is become a branch of commerce; and therefore ships are provided with conveniences for supplying them with water and provision, to bring them over in health from Jamaica, and other West India islands. This, however, is not always effected; for though they are very vivacious, and scarcely require any provisions upon the voyage, yet, by the working of the ship, and their beating against the sides of the

boat that contains them, they become battered and lean; so that to eat this animal in the highest perfection, instead of bringing the turtle to the epicure, he ought to be transported to the turtle.

This animal is called the green turtle, from the colour of its shell, which is rather greener than that of others of this kind. It is generally found about two hundred weight, though some are five hundred, and others not above fifty. Dampier tells us of one that was seen at Port-Royal, in Jamaica, that was six feet broad across the back: he does not tell us its other dimensions; but says, that the son of Captain Roach, a boy about ten years old, sailed in the shell, as in a boat, from the shore to his father's ship, which was above a quarter of a mile from land. But this is nothing to the size of some turtles the ancients speak of. Ælian assures us, that the houses in the island of Taprobane are usually covered with a single shell. Diodorus Siculus tells us, that a people neighbouring on Ethiopia, called the Turtle eaters, coasted along the shore in boats made of the upper shell of this animal; and that in war, when they had eaten the flesh, the covering served them as a tent. In this account, Pliny and all the rest of the ancients agree, and as they had frequent opportunities of knowing the truth; we are not lightly to contradict their testimony.

At present, however, they are not seen of such amazing dimensions. We are told by Laet, that on the Isle of Cuba they grow to such a size as that five men can stand on the back of one of them together; and, what is more surprising still, that the animal does not seem overloaded, but will go off with them upon its back, with a slow steady motion, towards the sea.

They are found in the greatest numbers on the Island of Ascension; where, for several years, they

were taken to be salted to feed the slaves, or for a supply of ship's provision. Their value at present seems to be better known.

This animal seldom comes from the sea but to deposit its eggs, and now and then to sport in fresh water. Its chief food is a submarine plant, that covers the bottom of several parts of the sea not far from the shore. There the turtles are seen, when the weather is fair, feeding in great numbers, like flocks of sheep, several fathoms deep, upon the verdant carpet below. At other times they go to the mouths of rivers, and they seem to find gratification in fresh water. After some time thus employed, they seek their former stations; and when done feeding, they generally float with their heads above water, unless they are alarmed by the approach of hunters or birds of prey, in which case they suddenly plunge to the bottom. They often seek their provision among the rocks, feeding upon moss and sea-weed; and it is probable will not disdain to prey upon insects and other small animals, as they are very fond of flesh when taken and fed for the table.

At the time of breeding, they are seen to forsake their former haunts and their food, and to take sometimes a voyage of nine hundred miles to deposit their eggs on some favourite shore. The coasts they always resort to upon these occasions are those that are low, flat, and sandy; for, being heavy animals, they cannot climb a bold shore, nor is any bed so proper as sand to lay their eggs on. They couple in March, and continue united till May, during a great part of which time they are seen locked together, and almost incapable of separation. The female seems passive and reluctant; but the male grasps her with his claws in such a manner, that nothing can induce him to quit his hold. It would seem that the grasp, as in frogs, is in some measure convulsive, and that the animal is unable to relax its efforts.

When the time for laying approaches, the female is seen, towards the setting of the sun, drawing near the shore, and looking earnestly about her, as if afraid of being discovered. When she perceives any person on shore, she seeks for another place; but if otherwise, she lands when it is dark, and goes to take a survey of the sand where she designs to lay. Having marked the spot, she goes back without laying, for that night, to the ocean again, but the next night returns to deposit a part of her burden. She begins by working and digging in the sand with her fore-feet till she has made a round hole, a foot broad and a foot and a half deep, just at the place a little above where the water reaches highest. This done, she lays eighty or ninety eggs at a time, each as big as a hen's egg, and as round as a ball. She continues laying about the space of an hour; during which time, if a cart were driven over her, she would not be induced to stir. The eggs are covered with a tough white skin, like whetted parchment. When she has done laying, she covers the hole so dexterously, that it is no easy matter to find the place; and those must be accustomed to the search to make the discovery. When the turtle has done laying, she returns to the sea, and leaves her eggs to be hatched by the heat of the sun. At the end of fifteen days she lays about the same number of eggs again; and at the end of another fifteen days she repeats the same; three times in all, using the same precautions every time for their safety.

In about twenty-four or twenty-five days after laying, the eggs are hatched by the heat of the sun; and the young turtles, being about as big as quails, are seen bursting from the sand, as if earth-born, and running directly to the sea, with instinct only for their guide: but, to their great misfortune, it often happens, that their strength being small, the surges of

the sea, for some few days, beat them back upon the shore. Thus exposed, they remain a prey to thousands of birds that then haunt the coasts; and these stooping down upon them, carry off the greatest part, and sometimes the whole brood, before they have strength sufficient to withstand the waves, or dive, to the bottom. Helbigius informs us, that they have still another enemy to fear, which is no other than the parent that produced them, that waits for their arrival at the edge of the deep, and devours as many as she can.* This circumstance, however, demands further confirmation; though nothing is more certain than that the crocodile acts in the same unnatural manner.

When the turtles have done laying, they then return to their accustomed places of feeding. Upon their outset to the shore where they breed, they are always found fat and healthy; but upon their return, they are weak, lean, and unfit to be eaten. They are seldom therefore molested upon their retreat; but the great art is to seize them when arrived, or to intercept their arrival. In these uninhabited islands, to which the green turtle chiefly resorts, the men that go to take them land about night-fall, and without making any noise (for those animals, though without any external opening of the ear, hear very distinctly, there being an auditory conduit that opens into the mouth,) lie close while they see the female turtle coming on shore. They let her proceed to her greatest distance from the sea; and then, when she is most busily employed in scratching a hole in the sand, they sally out and surprise her. Their manner is to turn her upon her back, which utterly incapacitates her from moving; and yet, as the creature is very strong, and struggles very hard, two men find it no

[* This account of the Turtle devouring its young, is entirely destitute of foundation.]

easy matter to lay her over. When thus secured, they go to the next; and in this manner, in less than three hours, they have been known to turn forty or fifty turtles, each of which weighs from a hundred and fifty to two hundred pounds. Labat assures us, that when the animal is in this helpless situation, it is heard to sigh very heavily, and even to shed tears.

At present, from the great appetite that man has discovered for this animal, they are not only thinned in their numbers, but are also grown much more shy. There are several other ways, therefore, contrived for taking them. One is, to seize them when coupled together, at the breeding season, when they are very easily approached, and as easily seen; for these animals, though capable of living for some time under water, yet rise every eight or ten minutes to breathe. As soon as they are thus perceived, two or three people draw near them in a canoe, and slip a noose either round their necks or one of their feet. If they have no line, they lay hold of them by the neck, where they have no shell, with their hands only; and by this means they usually catch them both together. But sometimes the female escapes, being more shy than the male.

Another way of taking them is by the harpoon, either when they are playing on the surface of the water, or feeding at the bottom: when the harpoon is skilfully darted, it sticks fast in the shell of the back; the wood then disengages from the iron, and the line is long enough for the animal to take its range; for if the harpooner should attempt at once to draw the animal into his boat till it is weakened by its own struggling, it would probably get free. Thus the turtle struggles hard to get loose, but all in vain; for they take care the line fastened to the harpoon shall be strong enough to hold it.

There is yet another way, which, though seeming-

ly awkward, is said to be attended with very great success. A good diver places himself at the head of the boat; and when the turtles are observed, which they sometimes are in great numbers, asleep on the surface, he immediately quits the vessel at about fifty yards distance, and keeping still under water, directs his passage to where the turtle was seen, and, coming up beneath, seizes it by the tail: the animal awaking, struggles to get free; and by this both are kept at the surface until the boat arrives to take them in.

CHAPTER IV.

OF THE SHELL OF TESTACEOUS FISHES.

ONE is apt to combine very dissimilar objects in the same group, when hurried into the vortex of method. No two animals are more unlike each other than the whale and the limpet, the tortoise and the oyster. Yet, as these animals must find some place in the picture of animated nature, it is best to let them rest in the station which the generality of mankind have assigned them; and as they have been willing to give them all, from their abode, the name of fishes, it is wisest in us to conform.

But before I enter into any history of shell-fish, it may not be improper to observe, that naturalists who have treated on this part of history, have entirely attended to outward forms; and, as in many other instances, forsaking the description of the animal itself, have exhausted all their industry in describing the habitation. In consequence of this radical error, we have volumes written upon the subject of shells, and very little said on the history of shell-fish. The

life of these industrious creatures, that for the most part creep along the bottom, or immoveably wait till driven as the waves happen to direct, is almost entirely unknown. The wreathing of their shells, or the spots with which they are tintured, have been described with a most disgusting prolixity; but their appetites and their combats, their escapes and humble arts of subsistence, have been utterly neglected.

As I have only undertaken to write the history of animated nature, the variety of shells, and their peculiar spots or blemishes, do not come within my design. However, the manner in which shells are formed is a part of natural history connected with my plan, as it pre-supposes vital force or industry in the animal that forms them.

The shell may be considered as a habitation supplied by nature. It is a hard stony substance, made up somewhat in the manner of a wall. Part of the stony substance the animal derives from outward objects, and the fluids of the animal itself furnish the cement. These united make that firm covering which shell-fish generally reside in till they die.

But in order to give a more exact idea of the manner in which sea shells are formed, we must have recourse to an animal that lives upon land, with the formation of whose shell we are best acquainted. This is the Garden Snail, that carries its box upon its back, whose history Swammerdam has taken such endless pains to describe. As the manner of the formation of this animal's shell extends to that of all others that have shells, whether they live upon land or in the water, it will be proper to give it a place before we enter upon the history of Testaceous Fishes.

To begin with the animal in its earliest state, and trace the progress of its shell from the time it first appears:—The instant the young snail leaves the

egg, it carries its shell or its box on its back. It does not leave the egg till it is arrived at a certain growth, when its little habitation is sufficiently hardened. This beginning of the shell is not much bigger than a pin's head, but grows in a very rapid manner, having at first but two circumvolutions, for the rest are added as the snail grows larger. In proportion as the animal increases in size, the circumvolutions of the shell increase also, until the number of those volutes come to be five, which is never exceeded.

The part where the animal enlarges its shell is at the mouth, to which it adds in proportion as it finds itself stinted in its habitation below. Being about to enlarge its shell, it is seen with its little teeth biting and clearing away the scaly skin that grows at the edges. It is sometimes seen to eat those bits it thus takes off; at other times it only cleans away the margin when covered with films, and then adds another rim to its shell.

For the purposes of making the shell, which is natural to the animal, and without which it could not live three days, its whole body is furnished with glands, from the orifices of which flows out a kind of slimy fluid, like small spiders' threads, which join together in one common crust or surface, and in time condense and acquire a stony hardness. It is this slimy humour that grows into a membrane and afterwards a stony skin, nor can it have escaped any who have observed the track of a snail: that glistening substance which it leaves on the floor or the wall, is no other than the materials with which the animal adds to its shell, or repairs it when broken.

Now to exhibit in a more satisfactory manner the method in which the shell is formed:—The snail bursts from its egg with its shell upon its back; this shell, though very simple, is the centre round which every succeeding convolution of the shell is formed,

by new circles added to the first. As the body of the snail can be extended no where but to the aperture, the mouth of the shell only can of consequence receive augmentation. The substance of which the shell is composed is chiefly supplied by the animal itself, and is no more than a slimy fluid which hardens into bone. This fluid passes through an infinite number of little glands, till it arrives at the pores of the skin; but there it is stopped by the shell that covers the part below, and therefore is sent to the mouth of the shell, where it is wanted for its enlargement. There the first layer of slime soon hardens; and then another is added, which hardens also, till in time the shell becomes as thick as is requisite for the animal's preservation. Thus every shell may be considered as composed of a number of layers of slime, which have entirely proceeded from the animal's own body.

But though this be the general opinion with regard to the formation of shells, I cannot avoid thinking there are still other substances beside the animal's own slime which go to the composition of its shell, or at least to its external coat, which is ever different from the internal. The substances I mean are the accidental concretions of earthy or saline parts, which adhere to the slimy matter upon its first emission. By adopting this theory, we can more satisfactorily account for the various colours of the shell, which cannot be supposed to take its tincture from the animal's body, as is the usual opinion, for all the internal parts of the shell are but of one white colour: it is only the outermost layer of the shell that is so beautifully varied, so richly tintured with that variety of colours we behold in the cabinets of the curious. If the external coat be scaled off, as M. Argenville asserts, all the inner substance will be found but of one simple colouring, and consequently the

animal's own juices can give only one colour, whereas we see some shells stained with a hundred.

The usual way of accounting for the different colouring of shells, which seems to me erroneous, is this:—In the body of every one of these animals several streaks are discerned of a different colour from the rest. This variety, say they, is an incontestible proof that the juices flowing from those parts will be also of a different hue, and will consequently tinge that part of the shell which their slime composes of a different colour. But this system, as was observed before, is overthrown by the fact, which discovers that only the outer surface of the shell is tinged, whereas by this it would have been coloured throughout; nay, by this system the internal parts of the shell would be stained with the most vivid colouring, as being least exposed to the external injuries of the element where it is placed. But the truth is, the animal residing in the shell has none of these various colours thus talked of: its slime is a simple pellucid substance; and the only marblings which appear in its body are the colour of the food, which is seen through its transparent intestines. We must therefore account for the various colouring of its shell upon a different principle.

If, as I said, we examine the cabinets of the curious, we shall find shells with various and beautiful colouring; we shall find them generally furnished with a white ground, tinged with red, yellow, brown, green, and several other shades and lovely mixtures, but never blue. Shells are of almost all colours but blue. The reason seems to be obvious, for blue is the colour which sea water changes. A piece of silk, or a feather of this colour, put into an infusion of salt, urine, or nitre, lose their tint entirely. Now, may not this give us a hint with respect to the operation of nature in colouring her shells? May

we not from hence conclude, that sea water is efficacious in giving colour or taking it away? That, to produce colour, the animal not only furnishes its juices, but the sea or the earth that mixture of substance which is to unite with them. Neither the animal slime alone, nor the external earthy or saline substances alone, could produce colours, but both united produce an effect which neither separately was possessed of. Thus shells assume every colour but blue; and that, sea water, instead of producing, would be apt to destroy.

From hence therefore it appears, that the animal does not alone tincture its own shell, but that external causes co-operate in contributing to its beauty. It is probable, that from the nature of its food, or from other circumstances unknown to us, the external layers of its slime may be of different consistencies; so as, when joined with the particles of earth or salt that are accidentally united with them from without, they assume various and beautiful hues. But the internal layers, which receive no foreign admixture, still preserve the natural colour of the animal, and continue white without any variation.

Thus far we see that the animal is not wholly the agent in giving beauty and colouring to its shell; but it seems otherwise with respect to its convolutions, its prominences, and general form. These entirely depend upon the art of the animal, or rather upon its instincts, which in the same kinds are ever invariable. The shell generally bears some rude resemblance to the body upon which it has been moulded. Thus it is observable in all sea shells, that if the animal has any tumour or excrescence on its body, it creates likewise a swelling in that part of the incrustation to which it corresponds. When the animal begins to alter its position, and to make new additions to its apartments, the same protuberance

which had raised the shell before in one part, swells it again at some little distance; by which means we see the same inequality in a spiral line all round the shell. Sometimes these tumours of the animal are so large, or so pointed, that those which rise over them in the incrustation appear like horns: after this the animal disengages itself from its first cavities, and then, by fresh evacuations, assumes a new set of horns; and so increases the number in proportion to its growth. If, on the other hand, the body happens to be channelled, the shell that covers it will be channelled likewise; if there be any protuberances in the body, which wind in a spiral line about it, the shell will likewise have its tumours and cavities winding round to the end.

In this manner, as the animals are of various forms, the shells exhibit an equal variety. Indeed, the diversity is so great, and the figures and colours so very striking, that several persons, with a kind of harmless indolence, have made the arrangement of them the study and the business of their lives. Those who consult their beauty alone, take care to have them polished, and to have an external crust, or periosteum, as Swammerdam calls it, scoured off from their surfaces by spirit of salt. But there are others that, with more learned affectation, keep them exactly in the state in which they have been found, with their precious crust still round them. The expense men have sometimes been at in making such collections, is amazing; and some shells, such as the Stairs-shell or the Admiral-shell, are not more precious for their scarceness, than pearls are for their beauty. Indeed, it is the scarcity, and not the beauty, of the object, that determines the value of all natural curiosities. Those shells that offer but little beautiful to the ignorant, are often the most precious; and those shells which an unlearned spectator would



1. Trachus 2. Pyramidal Trachus 3. Large, turbonated shell 4. Murex 5. Oriental, Murex 6 & 7 Purple 8. Painted Conch 9. Conch with the Unusual?

stop to observe with admiration, one accustomed to the visitation of cabinets, would pass over with disdain. These collections, however, have their use; not only by exhibiting the vast variety of nature's operations, but also by exciting our curiosity to the consideration of the animals that form them. A mind that can find innocent entertainment in these humble contemplations is well employed, and, as we say of children, is kept from doing mischief. Although there may be nobler occupations than that of considering the convolutions of a shell, yet there may be some who want the ambition to aspire after such arduous pursuits; there may be some unfit for them; there may be some who find their ambition fully gratified by the praise which the collectors of shells bestow upon each other. Indeed, for a day or two, there is no mind that a cabinet of shells cannot furnish with pleasing employment. What can be more gratifying, as Pliny says,* than to view nature in all her irregularities, and sporting in her variety of shells! Such a difference of colour do they exhibit; such a difference of figure; flat, concave, long, lunated, drawn round in a circle, the orbit cut in two; some are seen with a rising on the back, some smooth, some wrinkled, toothed, streaked, the point variously intorted, the mouth pointing like a dagger, folded back, bent inwards: all these variations, and many more, furnish at once novelty, elegance, and speculation.

With respect to the figure of shells, Aristotle has divided them into three kinds; and his method is, of all others, the most conformable to nature. These are, first, the Univalve, or Turbinate, which consist of one piece, like the box of a snail; secondly, the Bivalve, consisting of two pieces, united by a hinge, like an oyster; and thirdly, the Multivalve, consisting

* Plin. ix. 33.

of more than two pieces, as the acorn-shell, which has not less than twelve pieces that go to its composition. All these kinds, are found in the sea at different depths, and are valuable in proportion to their scarceness or beauty.

From the variety of the colours and figure of shells, we may pass to that of their place and situation. Some are found in the sea; some in fresh water rivers; some alive upon land; and a still greater quantity dead in the bowels of the earth. But wherever shells are found, they are universally known to be composed of one and the same substance. They are formed of an animal or calcareous earth, that ferments with vinegar and other acids, that burns into lime, and will not easily melt into glass. Such is the substance of which they are composed; and of their spoils, many philosophers think that a great part of the surface of the earth is composed at present. It is supposed by them, that chalks, marls, and all such earths as ferment with vinegar, are nothing more than a composition of shells, decayed and crumbled down to one uniform mass.

Sea shells are either found in the depths of the ocean, or they are cast empty and forsaken of their animals upon shore. Those which are fished up from the deep, are called by the Latin name *Pelagii*; those that are cast upon shore are called *Littorales*. Many of the pelagii are never seen upon shore; they continue in the depths where they are bred, and we owe their capture only to accident. These, therefore, are the most scarce shells, and, consequently, the most valuable. The littorales are more frequent; and such as are of the same kind with the pelagii are not so beautiful. As they are often empty and forsaken, and as their animal is dead, and perhaps putrid in the bottom of the shell, they by this means lose the whiteness and the brilliancy of their colour-

ing. They are not unfrequently also found eaten through, either by worms, or by each other; and they are thus rendered less valuable: but what decreases their price still more is, when they are scaled and worn by lying too long empty at the bottom, or exposed upon the shore. Upon the whole, however, sea shells exceed either land or fossil shells in beauty; they receive the highest polish, and exhibit the most brilliant and various colouring.

Fresh water shells are neither so numerous, so various, nor so beautiful, as those belonging to the sea. They want that solidity which the others have; their clavicle, as it is called, is neither so prominent nor so strong; and, not having a saline substance to tinge the surface of the shell, the colours are obscure. In fresh water there are but two kinds of shells; namely, the bivalved and the turbinated.

Living land shells are more beautiful, though not so various, as those of fresh water, and some not inferior to sea shells in beauty. These are indeed but of one kind, namely, the turbinated; but in that there are found four or five very beautiful varieties.

Of fossil, or, as they are called, *extraneous* shells, found in the bowels of the earth, there are great numbers, and as great a variety. In this class there are as many kinds as in the sea itself. There are found the turbinated, the bivalve, and the multivalve kinds, and of all these, many are at present not to be found even in the ocean. Indeed, the number is so great, and the varieties so many, that it was long the opinion of naturalists, that they were merely the capricious productions of nature, and had never given retreat to animals whose habitations they resembled. They were found not only of various kinds, but in different states of preservation: some had the shell entire, composed, as in its primitive state, of a white calcareous earth, and filled with earth, or even empty;

others were found with the shell entire, but filled with a substance which was petrified by time; others, and these in great numbers, were found with the shell entirely mouldered away, but the petrified substance that filled it still exhibiting the figure of the shell; others still, that had been lodged near earth or stone, impressed their print upon these substances, and left the impression, though they themselves were decayed; lastly, some shells were found half mouldered away, their parts scaling off from each other in the same order in which they were originally formed. However, these different stages of the shell, and even their fermenting with acids, were at first insufficient to convince those who had before assigned them a different origin. They were still considered as accidentally and sportively formed, and deposited in the various repositories where they were found, but no way appertaining to any part of animated nature. This put succeeding inquirers upon more minute researches; and they soon began to find, that often where they dug up petrified shells or teeth, they could discover the petrified remains of some other bony parts of the body. They found that the shells which were taken from the earth exhibited the usual defects and mischances which the same kind are known to receive at sea. They showed them not only tinctured with a salt water crust, but pierced in a peculiar manner by the sea worms, that make the shells of fishes their favourite food. These demonstrations were sufficient at last to convince all but a few philosophers, who died away, and whose erroneous systems died with them.

Every shell, therefore, wherever it is found is now considered as the spoil of some animal that once found shelter therein. It matters not by what unaccountable means they may have wandered from the sea; but they exhibit all, and the most certain marks

of their origin. From their numbers and situation we are led to conjecture, that the sea reached the places where they are found; and from their varieties we learn, how little we know of all the sea contains at present, as the earth furnishes many kinds which our most exact and industrious shell-collectors have not been able to fish up from the deep. It is most probable that thousands of different forms still remain at the bottom unknown; so that we may justly say with the philosopher, *Ea quæ scimus sunt pars minima eorum quæ ignoramus.*

It is well, however, for mankind, that the defect of our knowledge on this subject is, of all parts of learning, that which may be most easily dispensed with. An increase in the number of shells would throw but very few lights upon the history of the animals that inhabit them. For such information we are obliged to those men who contemplated something more than the outside of the objects before them. To Reaumur we are obliged for examining the manners of some with accuracy, but to Swammerdam for more. In fact, this Dutchman has lent attention to those animals that almost exceeds credibility: he has excelled even the insects he dissected, in patience, industry, and perseverance. It was in vain that this poor man's father dissuaded him from what the world considered as a barren pursuit; it was in vain that an habitual disorder, brought on by his application, interrupted his efforts; it was in vain that mankind treated him with ridicule while living, as they suffered his works to remain long unprinted and neglected when dead: still the Dutch philosopher went on, peeping into unwholesome ditches, wading through fens, dissecting spiders, and enumerating the blood-vessels of a snail. Like the bee, whose heart he could not only distinguish, but dissect, he seemed instinctively impelled by his ruling passion, although he

found nothing but ingratitude from man, and though his industry was apparently becoming fatal to himself. From him I will take some of the leading features in the history of those animals which breed in shells; previously taking my division from Aristotle, who, as was said above, divides them into three classes: the Turbinated, or those of the Snail kind; the Bivalved, or those of the Oyster kind; and the Multivalved, or those of the Acorn-shell kind. Of each I will treat in distinct chapters.

CHAPTER V.

OF TURBINATED SHELL-FISH OF THE SNAIL KIND.

To conceive the manner in which those animals subsist that are hid from us at the bottom of the deep, we must again have recourse to one of a similar nature and formation that we know. The history of the garden snail has been more copiously considered than that of the elephant; and its anatomy is as well if not better known: however, not to give any one object more room in the general picture of nature than it is entitled to, it will be sufficient to observe, that the snail is surprisingly fitted for the life it is formed to lead. It is furnished with the organs of life in a manner almost as complete as the largest animal; with a tongue, brain, salival ducts, glands, nerves, stomach, and intestines; liver, heart, and blood-vessels: besides this, it has a purple bag that furnishes a red matter to different parts of the body, together with strong muscles that hold it to the shell, and which are hardened, like tendons, at their insertion.

But these it possesses in common with other ani-

mals. We must now see what it has peculiar to itself. The first striking peculiarity is, that the animal has got its eyes on the points of its largest horns. When the snail is in motion, four horns are distinctly seen; but the two uppermost and longest deserve peculiar consideration, both on account of the various motions with which they are endued, as well as their having their eyes fixed at the extreme ends of them. These appear like two blackish points at their ends. When considered as taken out of the body, they are of a bulbous or turnip-like figure; they have but one coat; and the three humours which are common in the eyes of other animals, namely, the vitreous, the aqueous, and the crystalline, are in these very indistinctly seen. The eyes the animal can direct to different objects at pleasure, by a regular motion out of the body; and sometimes it hides them, by a very swift contraction into the belly. Under the small horns is the animal's mouth; and though it may appear too soft a substance to be furnished with teeth, yet it has not less than eight of them, with which it devours leaves, and other substances, seemingly harder than itself, and with which it sometimes bites off pieces of its own shell.

But what is most surprising in the formation of this animal, are the parts that serve for generation. Every snail is at once male and female, and while it impregnates another, is itself impregnated in turn. The vessels supplying the fluid for this purpose are placed chiefly in the fore-part of the neck, and extend themselves over the body; but the male and female organs of generation are always found united, and growing together. There is a large opening on the right side of the neck, which serves for very different purposes. As an *anus* it gives a passage to the excrements; as a mouth it serves for an opening for respiration; and also, as an organ of generation,

it dilates when the desire of propagation begins. Within this each animal has those parts, or something similar thereto, which continue the kind.

For some days before coition the snails gather together, and lie near each other, eating very little in the mean time; but they settle their bodies in such a posture that the neck and head are placed upright. In the mean time, the apertures on the side of the neck being greatly dilated, two organs resembling intestines are seen issuing from them, which some have thought to be the instruments of generation. Beside the protrusion of these, each animal is possessed of another peculiarity; for from the same aperture they launch forth a kind of dart at each other, which is pretty hard, barbed, and ending in a very sharp point. This is performed when the apertures approach each other; and then the one is seen to shoot its weapon, which is received by the other, though it sometimes falls to the ground: some minutes after, the snail which received the weapon darts one of its own at its antagonist, which is received in like manner. They then softly approach still nearer, and apply their bodies one to the other, as closely as the palms and fingers of the hands when grasped together. At that time the horns are seen variously moving in all directions, and this sometimes for three days together. The coupling of these animals is generally thrice repeated, at intervals of fifteen days each, and at every time a new dart is mutually emitted.

At the expiration of eighteen days the snails produce their eggs at the opening of the neck, and hide them in the earth with the greatest solicitude and industry. These eggs are in great numbers, round, white, and covered with a soft shell: they are also stuck to each other by an imperceptible slime, like a bunch of grapes, of about the size of a small pea.

When the animal leaves the egg it is seen with a very small shell on its back, which has but one convolution; but in proportion as it grows, the shell increases in the number of its circles. The shell always receives its additions at the mouth, the first centre still remaining; the animal sending forth from its body that slime which hardens into a stony substance, and still is fashioned into similar volutions. The garden snail seldom exceeds four rounds and a half; but some of the sea snails arrive even at ten.

The snail thus fitted with its box, which is light and firm, finds itself defended in a very ample manner from all external injury. Whenever it is invaded, it is but retiring into this fortress, and waiting patiently till the danger is over. Nor is it possessed only of a power of retreating into its shell, but of mending it when broken. Sometimes these animals are crushed seemingly to pieces, and to all appearance utterly destroyed; yet still they set themselves to work, and in a few days mend all their numerous breaches. The same substance by which the shell is originally made, goes to the re-establishment of the ruined habitation. But all the junctures are very easily seen, for they have a fresher colour than the rest, and the whole shell in some measure resembles an old coat patched with new pieces. They are sometimes seen with eight or ten of these patches, so that the damage must have been apparently irreparable. Still, however, though the animal is possessed of the power of mending its shell, it cannot when come to its full growth make a new one. Swammerdam tried the experiment: he stripped a snail of its shell, without hurting any of the blood-vessels, retaining that part of the shell where the muscles were inserted; but it died in three days after it was stripped of its covering, not, however, without making efforts to build up a new shell, for before

its death it pressed out a certain membrane round the whole surface of its body. This membrane was entirely of the shelly nature, and was intended by the animal as a supply towards a new one.

As the snail is furnished with all the organs of life and sensation, it is not wonderful to see it very voracious. It chiefly subsists upon the leaves of plants and trees, but is very delicate in its choice. When the animal moves to seek its food, it goes forward by means of that broad muscular skin which is sometimes seen projecting round the mouth of the shell; this is expanded before, and then contracted with a kind of undulating motion, like a man attempting to move himself forward by one arm while lying on his belly. But the snail has another advantage, by which it not only smooths and planes its way, but also can ascend in the most perpendicular direction. This is by that slimy substance with which it is so copiously furnished, and which it emits wherever it moves. Upon this slime, as upon a kind of carpet, it proceeds slowly along, without any danger of wounding its tender body against the asperities of the pavement; by means of this it moves upwards to its food upon trees, and by this descends, without danger of falling and breaking its shell by the shock.

The appetite of these animals is very great; and the damage gardeners in particular sustain from them, makes them employ every method for their destruction. Salt will destroy them, as well as soot; but a tortoise in a garden is said to banish them much more effectually.

At the approach of winter the snail buries itself in the earth, or retires to some hole, to continue in a torpid state during the severity of the season. It is sometimes seen alone, but more frequently in company in its retreat, several being usually found together apparently deprived of life and sensation.

For the purposes of continuing in greater warmth and security, the snail forms a cover or lid to the mouth of its shell with its slime, which stops it up entirely, and thus protects it from every external danger. The matter of which the cover is composed is whitish, somewhat like plaster, pretty hard and solid, yet at the same time porous and thin, to admit air, when the animal cannot live without. When the cover is formed too thick, the snail then breaks a little hole in it, which corrects the defect of that closeness which proceeded from too much caution. In this manner, sheltered in its hole from the weather, defended in its shell by a cover, it sleeps during the winter; and for six or seven months continues without food or motion, until the genial call of spring breaks its slumber, and excites its activity.

The snail having slept for so long a season, wakes one of the first fine days of April, breaks open its cell, and sallies forth to seek for nourishment. It is not surprising that so long a fast should have thinned it, and rendered it very voracious. At first, therefore, it is not very difficult in the choice of its food, almost any vegetable that is green seems welcome; but the succulent plants of the garden are chiefly grateful, and the various kinds of pulse are at some seasons almost wholly destroyed by their numbers. So great is the multiplication of snails in some years, that gardeners imagine they burst from the earth. A wet season is generally favourable to their production; for this animal cannot bear very dry seasons or dry places, as they cause too great a consumption of its slime, without plenty of which it cannot subsist in health and vigour.

Such are the most striking particulars in the history of this animal; and this may serve as a general picture to which the manners and habitudes of the other tribes of this class may be compared and re-

ferred. These are, the sea-snail, of which naturalists have, from the apparent difference of their shells, mentioned fifteen kinds;* the fresh water snail, of which there are eight kinds; and the land snail, of which there are five. These all bear a strong resemblance to the garden snail, in the formation of their shell, in their hermaphrodite natures, in the slimy substance with which they are covered, in the formation of their intestines, and the disposition of the hole on the right side of the neck, which serves at once for the discharge of the fæces, for the lodging the instruments of generation, and for respiration, when the animal is under a necessity of taking in a new supply.

But in nature, no two kinds of animals, however like each other in figure or conformation, are of manners entirely the same. Though the common garden snail bears a very strong resemblance to that of fresh water, and that of the sea, yet there are differences to be found, and those very considerable ones.

If we compare them with the fresh water snail, though we shall find a general resemblance, yet there are one or two remarkable distinctions: and first, the fresh water snail, and, as I should suppose, all snails that live in water, are peculiarly furnished with a contrivance by nature, for rising to the surface, or sinking to the bottom. The manner in which this is performed, is by opening and shutting the orifice on the right side of the neck; which is furnished with muscles for that purpose. The snail sometimes gathers this aperture into an oblong tube, and stretches or protends it above the surface of the water, in order to draw in or expel the air, as it finds occasion. This may not only be seen, but heard also by the noise which the snail makes in

* D'Argenville's Conchyliologie.

moving the water. By dilating this it rises; by compressing it, the animal sinks to the bottom. This is effected somewhat in the same manner in which little images of glass are made to rise or sink in water, by pressing the air contained at the mouth of the tubes, so that it shall drive the water into their hollow bodies, which before were filled only with air, and thus make them heavier than the element in which they swim. In this manner does the fresh water snail dive or swim, by properly managing the air contained in its body.

But what renders these animals far more worthy of notice is, that they are viviparous, and bring forth their young not only alive, but with their shells upon their backs. This seems surprising; yet it is incontestibly true. The young come to some degree of perfection in the womb of the parent; there they receive their stony coat; and from thence are excluded, with a complete apparatus for subsistence.

“On the twelfth of March,” says Swammerdam, “I began my observations upon this snail, and collected a great number of the kind, which I put into a large basin filled with rain water, and fed for a long time with potters’ earth, dissolved in the water about them. On the thirteenth of the same month I opened one of these snails, when I found nine living snails in its womb: the largest of these were placed foremost, as the first candidates for exclusion. I put them into fresh water, and they lived till the eighteenth of the same month, moving and swimming like snails full grown; nay, their manner of swimming was much more beautiful.” Thus, at whatever time of the year these snails are opened, they are found pregnant with eggs, or with living snails, or with both together.

This striking difference between the fresh water and the garden snail, obtains also in some of the

sea kind; among which there are some that are found viviparous, while others lay eggs in the usual manner. Of this kind are one or two of the Buccinums, within which living young have been frequently found, upon their dissection. In general, however, the rest of this numerous class bring forth eggs; from whence the animal bursts at a proper state of maturity, completely equipped with a house, which the moistness of the element where it resides does not prevent the inhabitant from enlarging. How the soft slime of the snail hardens at the bottom of the sea, into the stony substance of a shell, is not easy to conceive. This slime must at least be possessed of very powerful petrifying powers.

All animals of the snail kind, as was observed before, are hermaphrodites, each containing the instruments of generation double. But some of the sea kinds copulate in a different manner from those of the garden. The one impregnates the other; but, from the position of the parts, is incapable of being impregnated by the same in turn. For this reason it is necessary for a third to be admitted as a partner in this operation; so that, while one impregnates that before it, another does the same office by this, which is itself impregnated by a fourth. In this manner, Mr. Adanson has seen vast numbers of sea snails united together in a chain, impregnating each other. The Bulin and the Coret perform the offices of male and female at the same time. The orifices in these are two, both separate from each other: the opening by which the animal performs the office of the male being at the origin of the horns; that by which it is passive, as the female, being farther down upon the neck. It may also be observed as a general rule, that all animals that have this orifice, or verge, as some call it, on the right side, have their shells turned from the right to the left; on the contrary, those

which have it on the left side, have their shells turned from left to right, in a contrary direction to the former.

But this is not the only difference between land and sea snails. Many of the latter entirely want horns; and none of them have above two. Indeed, if the horns of snails be furnished with eyes, and if, as some are willing to think, the length of the horn, like the tube of a telescope, assists vision, these animals, that chiefly reside in the gloomy bottom of the deep, can have no great occasion for them. Eyes would be unnecessary to creatures whose food is usually concealed in the darkest places; and who, possessed of very little motion, are obliged to grope for what they subsist on. To such, I say, eyes would rather be an obstruction than an advantage; and perhaps even those that live upon land are without them.

Those that have seen the shells of sea snails, need not be told that the animal which produces them is larger than those of the same denomination upon land. The sea seems to have the property of enlarging the magnitude of all its inhabitants; and the same proportion that a trout bears to a shark, is often seen to obtain between a shell bred upon the land and one bred in the ocean. Its convolutions are more numerous. The garden snail has but five turns at the most; in the sea snail the convolutions are sometimes seen amounting to ten.

There is a difference also in the position of the mouth in the garden and the water snail. In the former, the mouth is placed crosswise, as in quadrupeds, furnished with jaw-bones, lips, and teeth. In most of the sea-snails, the mouth is placed longitudinally in the head; and in some obliquely, or on one side. Others, of the *Trochus* kind, have no mouth whatsoever, but are furnished with a trunk, very long in some kinds, and shorter in others.

Snails of the Trochus kind, furnished thus with an instrument of offence, deserve our particular attention. The trunk of the trochus is fleshy, muscular, supple, and hollow. Its extremity is bordered with a cartilage, and toothed like a saw. The snails that are provided with this, may be considered as the predaceous tribe among their fellows of the bottom. They are, among snails, what the tiger, the eagle, or the shark is among beasts, birds, or fishes. The whole race of shelled animals avoid their approach; for their habitations, however powerfully and strongly built, though ever so well fortified, yield to the superior force of these invaders. Though provided with a thick clumsy shell themselves, yet they move with greater swiftness at the bottom than most other shell-fish, and seize their prey with greater facility. No shell so large but they will boldly venture to attack, and, with their piercing auger-like trunk, will quickly bore it through. No efforts the other animal makes can avail: it expands itself, and rises to the surface, but the enemy rises with it; it again sinks to the bottom, but still its destroyer closely adheres. In this manner the carnivorous shell-fish, as some naturalists call it, sticks for several days, nay weeks, to its prey, until with its trunk it has sucked out all substance, or until it drops off when the other begins to putrefy.

Thus it would seem throughout nature, that no animal is so well defended but that others are found capable of breaking in upon its entrenchments. The garden snail seems tolerably well guarded; but the wall of its shell is paper itself in comparison with that which fortifies some of the sea snail kind. Beside this thick shell, many of them are also furnished with a lid, which covers the mouth of the shell, and which opens and shuts at the animal's pleasure. When the creature hunts for food, it opens its box,

gropes or swims about; and when satisfied, drops its lid and sinks to the bottom: there it might be supposed to remain in perfect security; but the trochus soon finds the way to break into the thickest part of its enclosure, and quickly destroys it with the most fatal industry.

The being liable to the attacks of the trochus seems to be a calamity to which most of this tribe are subject. Scarcely a shell is met with entire and sound to the end of its convolutions; but particularly the thinnest shells are the most subject to be thus invaded. As their shells are easily pierced, the predatory shell-fish, or the sea worm, chiefly seek them for subsistence; and of those thin paper-like shells, not one in a hundred is found that has not suffered some disaster. As they are lighter than other shell-fish, they swim with greater ease; and this is the chief method of avoiding their heavier thick-shelled pursuers. The food of all snails properly lies at the bottom; when therefore, the nautilus, or other thin-shelled fish, are seen busily swimming at the surface, it may be, that instead of sporting or sunning themselves, as some are apt to suppose, they are actually labouring to escape their most deadly pursuers.

Of all sea snails, that which is most frequently seen swimming upon the surface, and whose shell is the thinnest and most easily pierced, is the Nautilus. Whether upon these occasions it is employed in escaping its numerous enemies at the bottom, or seeking for food at the surface, I will not venture to decide. It seems most probable, that the former is the cause of its frequently appearing; for, upon opening the stomach, it is found to contain chiefly that food which it finds at the bottom. This animal's industry, therefore, may be owing to its fears; and all those arts of sailing which it has taught mankind,

may have been originally the product of necessity. But the nautilus is too famous not to demand a more ample description.

Although there be several species of the nautilus, yet they all may be divided into two; the one with a white shell as thin as paper, which it is often seen to quit and again to resume; the other with a thicker shell, sometimes of a beautiful mother-of-pearl colour, and that quits its shell but rarely. This shell outwardly resembles that of a large snail, but is generally six or eight inches across; within, it is divided into forty partitions, that communicate with each other by doors, if I may so call them, through which one could not thrust a goose quill: almost the whole internal part of the shell is filled by the animal, the body of which, like its habitation, is divided, into as many parts as there are chambers in its shell; all the parts of its body communicate with each other, through the doors or openings, by a long blood-vessel, which runs from the head to the tail: thus the body of the animal, if taken out of the shell, may be likened to a number of soft bits of flesh, of which there are forty, threaded upon a string. From this extraordinary conformation, one would not be apt to suppose that the nautilus sometimes quitted its shell, and returned to it again; yet nothing, though seemingly more impossible, is more certain. The manner by which it contrives to disengage every part of its body from so intricate an habitation; by which it makes a substance, to appearance as thick as one's wrist, pass through forty doors, each of which would scarcely admit a goose quill, is not yet discovered: but the fact is certain; for the animal is often found without its shell, and the shell more frequently destitute of the animal. It is most probable, that it has a power of making the substance of one section of its body remove up into that which is next; and thus, by multiplied removals, it gets free.

But this, though very strange, is not the peculiarity for which the nautilus has been the most distinguished. Its spreading the thin oar, and catching the flying gale, to use the poet's description of it, has chiefly excited human curiosity. These animals, particularly those of the white, light kind, are chiefly found in the Mediterranean; and scarcely any who have sailed on that sea, but must often have seen them. When the sea is calm, they are observed floating on the surface; some spreading their little sail; some rowing with their feet, as if for life and death; and others still, floating upon their mouths, like a ship with the keel upward. If taken while thus employed, and examined, the extraordinary mechanism of their limbs for sailing will appear more manifest. The nautilus is furnished with eight feet, which issue near the mouth, and may as properly be called barbs; these are connected to each other by a thin skin, like that between the toes of a duck, but much thinner and more transparent. Of these eight feet thus connected, six are short, and these are held up as sails to catch the wind in sailing; the two others are longer, and are kept in the waters, serving, like paddles, to steer their course by. When the weather is quite calm, and the animal is pursued from below, it is then seen expanding only a part of its sail, and rowing with the rest: whenever it is interrupted, or fears danger from above, it instantly furls the sail, catches in all its oars, turns its shell mouth downwards, and instantly sinks to the bottom. Sometimes also it is seen pumping the water from its leaking hulk; and when unfit for sailing, deserts its shell entirely. The forsaken hulk is seen floating along, till it dashes, by a kind of shipwreck, upon the rocks or the shore.

From the above description, I think, we may consider this animal rather as attempting to save itself

from the attacks of its destroyers, than as rowing in pursuit of food. Certain it is, that no creature of the deep has more numerous and more powerful enemies. Its shell is scarcely ever found in perfect preservation, but is generally seen to bear some marks of hostile invasion. Its little arts, therefore, upon the surface of the water, may have been given it for protection; and it may thus be endued with comparative swiftness, to avoid the crab, the sea-scorpion, the trochus, and all the slower predaceous reptiles that lurk for it at the bottom of the water.

From this general view of snails, they appear to be a much more active, animated tribe, than from their figure one would at first conceive. They seem, to an inattentive spectator, as mere inert masses of soft flesh, rather loaded than covered with a shell, scarcely capable of motion, and insensible to all the objects around them. When viewed more closely, they are found to be furnished with the organs of life and sensation in tolerable perfection; they are defended with armour that is at once both light and strong; they are as active as their necessities require; and are possessed of appetites more poignant than those of animals that seem much more perfectly formed. In short, they are a fruitful industrious tribe, furnished, like all other animals, with the powers of escape and invasion; they have their pursuits and their enmities, and of all creatures of the deep, they have most to fear from each other.

CHAPTER VI.

OF BIVALVED SHELL-FISH, OR SHELLS OF THE OYSTER KIND.

It may seem whimsical to make a distinction between the animal perfections of turbinated and bivalved shell-fish, or to grant a degree of superiority to the snail above the oyster. Yet this distinction strongly and apparently obtains in nature; and we shall find the bivalved tribe of animals in every respect inferior to those we have been describing. Inferior in all their sensations; inferior in their powers of motion; but particularly inferior in their system of animal generation. The snail tribe, as we saw, are hermaphrodite, but require the assistance of each other for fecundation; all the bivalve tribe are hermaphrodite in like manner, but they require no assistance from each other towards impregnation; and a single muscle or oyster, if there were no other in the world, would quickly replenish the ocean. As the land snail, from its being best known, took the lead in the former class, so the fresh water muscle, for the same reason, may take the lead in this. The life and manners of such as belong to the sea will be best displayed in the comparison.

The Muscle, as is well known, whether belonging to fresh or salt water, consists of two equal shells, joined at the back by a strong muscular ligament, that answers all the purposes of a hinge. By the elastic contraction of these, the animal can open its shells at pleasure, about a quarter of an inch from each other. The fish is fixed to either shell by four tendons, by means of which it shuts them close, and keeps its body firm from being crushed by any shock against the walls of its own habitation. It is furnish-

ed, like all other animals of this kind, with vital organs, though these are situated in a very extraordinary manner. It has a mouth furnished with two fleshy lips; its intestine begins at the bottom of the mouth, passes through the brain, and makes a number of circumvolutions through the liver; on leaving this organ, it goes on straight into the heart, which it penetrates, and ends in the anus; near which the lungs are placed, and through which it breathes, like those of the snail kind; and in this manner its languid circulation is carried on.*

But the organs of generation are what most deserve to excite our curiosity. These consist in each muscle of two ovaries, which are the female part of its furniture, and of two seminal vessels, resembling what are found in the male. Each ovary and each seminal vessel has its own proper canal; by the ovary canal the eggs descend to the anus, and there also the seminal canals send their fluids to impregnate them. By this contrivance one single animal suffices for the double purposes of generation, and the eggs are excluded and impregnated by itself alone.

As the muscle is thus furnished with a kind of self-creating power, there are few places where it breeds that it is not found in great abundance. The ovaries usually empty themselves of their eggs in spring, and they are replenished in autumn. For this reason they are found empty in summer and full in winter. They produce in great numbers, as all bivalved shell-fish are found to do. The fecundity of the snail kind is trifling in comparison to the fertility of these. Indeed it may be asserted as a general rule in nature, that the more helpless and contemptible the animal, the more prolific it is always found. Thus all creatures that are incapable of resisting

* M. Mery, *Anat. des Moules d'Etang.*

their destroyers, have nothing but their quick multiplication for the continuation of their existence.

The multitude of these animals in some places is very great, but from their defenceless state the number of their destroyers is in equal proportion. The crab, the cray-fish, and many other animals, are seen to devour them; but the trochus is their most formidable enemy. When their shells are found deserted, if we then observe closely, it is most probable we shall find that the trochus has been at work in piercing them. There is scarcely one of them without a hole in it; and this probably was the avenue by which the enemy entered to destroy the inhabitant.

But notwithstanding the number of this creature's animated enemies, it seems still more fearful of the agitations of the element in which it resides; for if dashed against rocks, or thrown far on the beach, it is destroyed without a power of redress. In order to guard against these, which are to this animal the commonest and the most fatal accidents, although it has a power of slow motion, which I shall presently describe, yet it endeavours to become stationary, and to attach itself to any fixed object it happens to be near. For this purpose it is furnished with a very singular capacity of binding itself by a number of threads to whatever object it approaches; and these Reaumur supposed it spun artificially, as spiders their webs which they fasten against a wall. Of this, however, later philosophers have found very great reason to doubt. It is therefore supposed that these threads, which are usually called the beard of the muscle, are the natural growth of the animal's body, and by no means produced at pleasure. Indeed, the extreme length of this beard in some, which far exceeds the length of the body, seems impossible to be manufactured by the thrusting out and drawing in of the

tongue, with the glutinous matter of which the French philosopher supposed those threads were formed. It is even found to increase with the growth of the animal; and as the muscle becomes larger and older, the beard becomes longer, and its filaments more strong.* Be this as it will, nothing is more certain than that the muscle is found attached by these threads to every fixed object; sometimes, indeed, for want of such an object, these animals are found united to each other; and though thrown into a lake separately, they are taken out in bunches of many together.

To have some fixed resting place, where the muscle can continue, and take in its accidental food, seems the state that this animal chiefly desires. Its instrument of motion, by which it contrives to reach the object it wants to bind itself to, is that muscular substance resembling a tongue, which is found long in proportion to the size of the muscle. In some it is two inches long, in others not a third part of these dimensions. This the animal has a power of thrusting out of its shell, and with this it is capable of making a slight furrow in the sand at the bottom. By means of this furrow it can erect itself upon the edge of its shell; and thus continuing to make the furrow in proportion as it goes forward, it reaches out its tongue, that answers the purpose of an arm, and thus carries its shell edgewise, as in a groove, until it reaches the point intended. There, where it determines to take up its residence, it fixes the ends of its beard, which are glutinous, to the rock or the object, whatever it be; and thus, like a ship at anchor, braves all the agitations of the water. Sometimes the animal is attached by a large number of threads, sometimes but by three or four, that seem

* Mercier du Paty, sur les Bouchots a Moules. Tom. ii, de l'Academie de la Rochelle.

scarce able to retain it. When the muscle is fixed in this manner, it lives upon the little earthy particles that the water transports to its shells, and perhaps the flesh of the most diminutive animals. However, it does not fail to grow considerably, and some of this kind have been found a foot long. I have seen the beards a foot and a half; and of this substance the natives of Palermo sometimes make gloves and stockings.

These shell-fish are found in lakes, rivers, and in the sea. Those of the lake often grow to a very large size; but they seem a solitary animal, and are found generally separate from each other. Those of rivers are not so large, but yet in greater abundance; but the sea muscle of all others is perhaps the most plenty. These are often bred artificially in salt water marshes that are overflowed by the tide; the fishermen throwing them in at the proper seasons, and there being undisturbed by the agitations of the sea, and not preyed upon by their powerful enemies at the bottom, they cast their eggs, which soon become perfect animals, and these are generally found in clusters of several dozens together. It requires a year for the peopling a muscle bed; so that if the number consists of forty thousand, a tenth part may annually be left for the peopling the bed anew. Muscles are taken from their beds from the month of July to October; and they are sold at a very moderate price.

From this animal the oyster differs very little, except in the thickness of its shell, and its greater imbecility. The oyster, like the muscle, is formed with organs of life and respiration, with intestines which are very voluminous, with a liver, lungs, and heart. Like the muscle, it is self-impregnated; and the shell, which the animal soon acquires, serves it for its future habitation. Like the muscle, it opens its shell

to receive the influx of water; and like that animal, is strongly attached to its shells, both above and below.

But it differs in many particulars. In the first place, its shells are not equal, the one being cupped, the other flat; upon the cupped shell it is always seen to rest, for if it lay upon the flat side it would then lose all its water. It differs also in the thickness of its shells, which are so strongly lined and defended, that no animal will attempt to pierce them. But though the oyster be secured from the attacks of the small reptiles at the bottom, yet it often serves as an object to which they are attached. Pipe-worms and other little animals fix their habitation to the oyster's sides, and in this manner continue to live in security. Among the number of these is a little red worm, that is often found upon the shell; which some, from never seeing oysters copulate, erroneously supposed to be the male by which their spawn was impregnated.

The oyster differs also from the muscle in being utterly unable to change its situation. The muscle, as we have observed, is capable of erecting itself on an edge, and going forward with a slow laborious motion. The oyster is wholly passive, and endeavours by all its powers to rest fixed to one spot at the bottom. It is entirely without that tongue which we saw answering the purposes of an arm in the other animal; but nevertheless is often attached very firmly to any object it happens to approach. Rocks, stones, pieces of timber, or sea-weeds, all seem proper to give it a fixture, and to secure it against the agitation of the waves. Nothing so common in the rivers of the tropical climates as to see oysters growing even amidst the branches of the forest. Many trees which grow along the banks of the stream often bend their branches into the water, and particularly the man-

grove, which chiefly delights in a moist situation. To these the oysters hang in clusters, like apples upon the most fertile tree; and in proportion as the weight of the fish sinks the plant into the water, where it still continues growing, the number of oysters increase, and hang upon the branches. Thus there is nothing that these shell-fish will not stick to; they are often even found to stick to each other. This is effected by means of a glue proper to themselves, which when it cements, the joining is as hard as the shell, and is as difficultly broken. The joining substance, however, is not always of glue; but the animal grows to the rocks, somewhat like the muscle, by threads; although these are only seen to take root in the shell, and not, as in the muscle, to spring from the body of the fish itself.

Oysters usually cast their spawn in May, which at first appear like drops of candle grease, and stick to any hard substance they fall upon. These are covered with a shell in two or three days; and in three years the animal is large enough to be brought to market. As they invariably remain in the places where they are laid, and as they grow without any other seeming food than the afflux of sea water, it is the custom at Colchester, and other parts of the kingdom, where the tide settles in marshes on land, to pick up great quantities of small oysters along the shore, which when first gathered seldom exceed the size of a six-pence. These are deposited in beds where the tide comes in, and in two or three years grow to a tolerable size. They are said to be better tasted for being thus sheltered from the agitations of the deep; and a mixture of fresh water entering into these repositories, is said to improve their flavour, and to increase their growth and fatness.

The oysters, however, which are prepared in this manner, are by no means so large as those found

sticking to rocks at the bottom of the sea, usually called *rock-oysters*. These are sometimes found as broad as a plate, and are admired by some as excellent food. But what is the size of these compared to the oysters of the East Indies, some of whose shells I have seen two feet over! The oysters found along the coast of Coromandel are capable of furnishing a plentiful meal to eight or ten men; but it seems universally agreed that they are no way comparable to ours for delicacy or flavour.

Thus the muscle and the oyster appear to have but few distinctions, except in their shape and the power of motion in the former. Other bivalved shellfish, such as the cockle, the scallop, and the razor-shell, have differences equally minute. The power of changing place, which some of them effect in a manner quite peculiar to themselves, makes their greatest difference. The Scallop is particularly remarkable for its method of moving forward upon land, or swimming upon the surface of the water. When this animal finds itself deserted by the tide, it makes very remarkable efforts to regain the water, moving towards the sea in a most singular manner. It first gapes with its shell as widely as it can, the edges being often an inch asunder; then it shuts them with a jerk, and by this the whole animal rises five or six inches from the ground. It thus tumbles any how forward, and then renews the operation until it has attained its journey's end. When in the water it is capable of supporting itself upon the surface; and there opening and shutting its shells, it tumbles over and over, and makes its way with some celerity.

The Pivot, or Razor-shell, has a very different kind of motion. As the former moves laboriously and slowly forward, so the razor-shell has only a power of sinking point downward. The shells of this ani-

mal resemble nothing so much as the haft of a razor; and by this form it is better enabled to dive into the soft sand at the bottom. All the motions of this little animal are confined to sinking or rising a foot downwards or upwards in the sand, for it never leaves the spot where first it was planted. From time to time it is seen to rise about half-way out of its hole; but if any way disturbed, it sinks perpendicularly down again. Just over the place where the razor buries itself, there is a small hole like a chimney, through which the animal breathes, or imbibes the sea water. Upon the desertion of the tide, these holes are easily distinguished by the fishermen who seek for it; and their method of enticing the razor up from the depth of its retreat is by sprinkling a little sea-salt upon the hole. This, melting, no sooner reaches the razor below, than it rises instantly straight upwards, and shows about half its length above the surface. This appearance, however, is instantaneous; and if the fisher does not seize the opportunity, the razor buries itself with great ease to its former depth. There it continues secure; no salt can allure it a second time; but it remains unmolested, unless the fisher will be at the trouble of digging it out, sometimes two feet below the surface.

Such are the minute differences between bivalved shell-fish; but in the great outlines of their nature they exactly resemble each other. It is particularly in this class of shell-fish that pearls are found in great abundance; and it is in the internal parts of those shells that are of a shining silvery colour that these gems are usually generated; but the pearl is also found to breed as well in the muscle or the scallop as in the oyster. In fact, it is found in all bivalved shells, the insides of which resemble that well-known substance called mother-of-pearl.

Whether pearls be a disease or an accident in the animal, is scarcely worth inquiry. The common opinion is, that they are a kind of calculous concretion in the body of the animal, somewhat resembling a stone in the bladder, and are consequently to be considered as a disorder. It is said, in confirmation of this opinion, that those coasts upon which pearls are fished are very unhealthy; and therefore most probably oysters share the general influence of the climate: It is also added, that those oysters in which pearls are found are always ill-tasted, which is a sign of their being unsound; and lastly, it is asserted that the pearl grows sometimes so big as to keep the shells of the animal from shutting, and that thus it dies by being exposed. It is easy to see the weakness of these assertions, which seem neither true nor amusing. To answer them in their own way, if a stone in the bladder be a disorder, a stone in the stomach of an ostrich is a benefit, and so it may be in the shell of an oyster. If the shores where the pearls are fished be unwholesome to man, that, instead of being disadvantageous, is so much the more lucky for the oyster. If the pearl oysters are the worst tasted, so are kites and ravens among birds; and yet we know that they are healthy and long-lived animals. If the oyster had ever its shell kept asunder by the pearl within it, that would be a disease indeed; but this in reality never happens; for the oyster that breeds a large pearl always breeds a large shell, and the shell itself indents to receive its impression. The pearl, upon the whole, seems bred from no disorder in the animal, but accidentally produced by the same matter that goes to form the shell. This substance, which is soft at first, quickly hardens; and thus, by successive coats, layer over layer, the pearl acquires its dimensions. If cut through, it will be found to consist of several coats, like an onion;

and sometimes a small speck is seen in the middle, upon which the coats were originally formed.

All oysters, and most shell-fish, are found to contain pearls; but that which particularly obtains the name of the pearl oyster, has a large strong whitish shell wrinkled and rough without, and within smooth and of a silver colour. From these the mother-of-pearl is taken, which is nothing more than the internal coats of the shell, resembling the pearl in colour and consistence. This is taken out and shaped into that variety of utensils which are found so beautiful; but the pearl itself is chiefly prized, being found but in few oysters, and generally adhering, sometimes making a print in the body of the shell, sometimes at large within the substance of the fish.

There are a great number of pearl fisheries in America and Asia; but as pearls bear a worse price than formerly, those of America are in a great measure discontinued. The most famous of all the Asiatic fisheries is in the Persian Gulf, near the Isle of Bahren. There is another between the coast of Madura and the Island of Ceylon; and there was a third on the coasts of Japan; but as these noble islanders have a contempt for jewels, and an abhorrence for such Europeans as come in pursuit of them, that fishery, which is thought to be the most valuable of all others, is discontinued. The diving business is now carried on only in those countries where the wretchedness of one part of mankind goes to support the magnificence of the other.

The chief fishery, as was said, is carried on in the Persian Gulf, and the most valuable pearls are brought from thence. The value of these jewels increases, not only in proportion to their size, but also their figure and colour; for some pearls are white, others are yellowish, others of a lead colour; and some affirm they have been found as black as

jet. What it is that gives these different tinctures to pearls, is not known; Taverner ascribes it to their lying two or three weeks upon shore after the oyster is taken; Reaumur thinks it proceeds from the colour of that part of the fish's body upon which the pearl lies. It is most probable that this colour proceeds, like the spots frequently found on the internal surface of the shell itself, from some accident while the pearl is growing.

The best coloured pearls and the roundest are brought from the East; those of America are neither so white nor so exactly oval. All pearls, however, in time become yellow; they may be considered as an animal substance converted into a stony hardness, and, like ivory, taking a tincture from the air. They have been even found to decay when in damp or vaulted places, and to moulder into a substance scarce harder than chalk. When the daughters of Stilicon, who were both betrothed, one after the other, to the emperor Honorius, were buried, much of their finery was also deposited with them in the same tomb. In this manner they remained buried for above eleven hundred years, till the foundations of the church of St. Peter were laying. Their tomb was then discovered, and all their finery was found in tolerable preservation except their pearls, which were converted by time and damps into a chalky powder.

The wretched people that are destined to fish for pearls, are either Negroes or some of the poorest of the natives of Persia. The inhabitants of this country are divided into tyrants and slaves. The divers are not only subject to the dangers of the deep, to tempests, to suffocation at the bottom, to being devoured by sharks, but from their profession universally labour under a spitting of blood, occasioned by the pressure of air upon their lungs in going down

to the bottom. The most robust and healthy young men are chosen for this employment, but they seldom survive it above five or six years. Their fibres become rigid, their eye-balls turn red, and they usually die consumptive.

It is amazing how very long they are seen to continue at the bottom. Some, as we are assured, have been known to continue three quarters of an hour under water without breathing; and to one unused to diving, ten minutes would suffocate the strongest. Whether from some effort the blood bursts the old passage which it had in the foetus, and circulates without going through the lungs, it is not easy to tell; but certain it is, that some bodies have been dissected with this canal of communication open, and these extraordinary divers may be internally formed in that manner.

Be this as it may, no way of life seems so laborious, so dangerous, or so painful. They fish for pearls, or rather the oysters that contain them, in boats twenty-eight feet long; and of these there are sometimes three or four hundred at a time, with each seven or eight stones, which serve for anchors. There are from five to eight divers belonging to each, that dive one after another. They are quite naked, except that they have a net hanging down from the neck to put their oysters in, and gloves on their hands to defend them while they pick the oysters from the holes in the rocks; for in this manner alone can they be gathered. Every diver is sunk by means of a stone, weighing fifty pounds, tied to the rope by which he descends. He places his foot in a kind of stirrup, and laying hold of the rope with his left hand, with his right he stops his nose to keep in his breath, as upon going down he takes in a very long inspiration. They are no sooner come to the bottom, but they give the signal to those who are in

the boat to draw up the stone; which done, they go to work, filling their net as fast as they can; and then giving another signal, the boats above pull up the net loaded with oysters, and shortly after the diver himself, to take a new inspiration. They dive to the depth of fifteen fathoms, and seldom go deeper. They generally go every morning by break of day to this fatiguing employment, taking the land-wind to waft them out to sea, and returning with the sea-breeze at night. The owners of the boats usually hire the divers, and the rest of the boat's crew, as we do our labourers, at so much a day. All the oysters are brought on shore, where they are laid in a great heap till the pearl fishery is over, which continues during the months of November and December. When opportunity serves, they then examine every oyster, and it is accidental whether the capture turns out advantageous. Indeed no human being can wish well to a commerce, which thus chains such a number of fellow-creatures to the bottom, to pluck up a glittering, mouldering pebble.

CHAPTER VII.

OF MULTIVALVE SHELL-FISH.

MULTIVALVE shell-fish may be considered as animals shut up in round boxes. To view their habitations externally, one would be little apt to consider them as the retreats of living creatures; and still less to suppose that some of them carry their boxes with a tolerable share of swiftness, so as to escape their pursuers. Of these there are principally two kinds; such as move, and such as are stationary: the first are usually known in our cabinets by the name of

sea-eggs; the others are as often admired, from the cavities which they scoop out for their habitation in the hardest marble. The first are called by naturalists, Echini, or Urchins; the latter are called Pholades, or File-fish. Of both there are several sorts; but, by describing these two, we shall have a competent idea of all the rest.

On a slight view, the sea urchin may be compared to the husk of a chesnut; being like it round, and with a number of bony prickles standing out on every side. To exhibit this extraordinary animal in every light—If we could conceive a turnip stuck full of pins on every side, and running upon these pins with some degree of swiftness, we should have some idea of this extraordinary creature. The mouth is placed downwards; the vent is above; the shell is a hollow vase, resembling a scooped apple; and this filled with a soft muscular substance, through which the intestines wind from the bottom to the top. The mouth which is placed undermost, is large and red, furnished with five sharp teeth, which are easily discerned. The jaws are strengthened by five small bones, in the centre of which is a small fleshy tongue; and from this the intestines make a winding of five spires round the internal sides of the shell, ending at top, where the excrements are excluded. But what makes the most extraordinary part of this animal's conformation, are its horns and its spines, that point from every part of the body, like the horns of a snail, and that serve at once as legs to move upon, as arms to feel with, and as instruments of capture and defence. Between these horns it has also spines that are not endued with such a share of motion. The spines and the horns issue from every part of the body; the spines being hard and prickly, the horns being soft, longer than the spines, and never seen except in the water. They are put

forward and withdrawn like the horns of a snail, and are hid at the bases of the spines, serving, as was said before, for procuring food and motion. All this apparatus, however, is only seen when the animal is hunting its prey at the bottom of the water; for, a few minutes after it is taken, all the horns are withdrawn into the body, and most of the spines drop off.

It is generally said of insects, that those which have the greatest number of legs, always move the slowest: but this animal seems to be an exception to the rule; for though furnished with two thousand spines, and twelve hundred horns, all serving for legs, and from their number seeming to impede each other's motion, yet it runs with some share of swiftness at the bottom, and it is sometimes no easy matter to overtake it. It is often taken upon the ebb, by following it in shallow water, either in an osier basket, or simply with the hand. Both the spines and the horns assist its motion; and the animal is usually seen running with the mouth downward.

Some kinds of this animal are as good eating as the lobster; and its eggs, which are of a deep red, are considered as a very great delicacy. But of others the taste is but indifferent; and in all places except the Mediterranean, they are little sought for, except as objects of curiosity.

Very different in motion, though not much different in shape, from these, are the Acorn Shell-fish, the Thumb-footed Shell fish, and the imaginary Barnacle. These are fixed to one spot, and appear to vegetate from a stalk. Indeed, to an inattentive spectator, each actually seems to be a kind of fungus that grows in the deep, destitute of animal life as well as motion. But the inquirer will soon change his opinion, when he comes to observe this mushroom-like figure more minutely. He will then see

that the animal residing within the shell has not only life, but some degree of voraciousness; that it has a cover by which it opens and shuts its shell at pleasure; that it has twelve long crooked arms, furnished with hair, which it thrusts forth for its prey, and eight smaller, which are generally kept in the shell. These are seen adhering to every substance that is to be met in the ocean; rocks, roots of trees, ships' bottoms, whales, lobsters, and even crabs; like bunches of grapes, clung to each other. It is amusing enough to behold their operations.* They for some time remain motionless within their shell; but when the sea is calm, they are seen opening the lid, and peeping about them. They then thrust out their long necks, look round them for some time, and then abruptly retreat back into their box, shut their lid, and lurk in darkness and security. Some people eat them; but they are in no great repute at the tables of the luxurious, where their deformed figure would be no objection to their being introduced.

Of all animals of the shelly tribe, the Pholades are the most wonderful.† From their great powers of penetration, compared with their apparent imbecility, they justly excite the astonishment of the curious observer. These animals are found in different places; sometimes clothed in their proper shell,

* Anderson's History of Greenland.

[† The Pholas is remarkable for its luminous quality. This was noticed by Pliny, who observes that it shines in the mouth of the person who eats it, and if it touch his hands or clothes, it makes them luminous. M. Reaumur says, that whereas other fishes give light when they tend to putrescence, this is more luminous in proportion to its being fresh; that when they are dried, their light will revive if they be moistened either with fresh or salt water, but that brandy immediately extinguishes it. He endeavoured to make this light permanent, but none of his schemes succeeded. A single pholas when put into a vessel containing seven ounces of milk, made it so luminous, that the faces of persons might be distinguished by it, and it looked as if it was transparent.]

at the bottom of the water; sometimes concealed in lumps of marly earth; and sometimes lodged, shell and all, in the body of the hardest marble. In their proper shell they assume different figures; but in general, they somewhat resemble a muscle, except that their shell is found actually composed of five or more pieces, the smaller valves serving to close up the opening left by the irregular meeting of the two principal shells. But their penetration into rocks, and their residence there, makes up the most wonderful part of their history.

This animal when divested of its shell, resembles a roundish soft pudding, with no instrument that seems in the least fitted for boring into stones, or even penetrating the softest substances. It is furnished with two teeth indeed; but these are placed in such a situation as to be incapable of touching the hollow surface of its stony dwelling: it has also two covers to its shell, that open and shut at either end; but these are totally unserviceable to it as a miner. The instrument with which it performs all its operations, and buries itself in the hardest rocks, is only a broad fleshy substance, somewhat resembling a tongue, that is seen issuing from the bottom of its shell. With this soft yielding instrument, it perforates the most solid marbles; and having, while yet little and young, made its way by a very narrow entrance into the substance of the stone, it then begins to grow bigger, and thus to enlarge its apartment.

The seeming unfitness, however, of this animal for penetrating into rocks, and there forming an habitation, has induced many philosophers to suppose that they entered the rock while it was yet in a soft state, and from the petrifying quality of the water, that the whole rock afterwards hardened round them by degrees. Thus any penetrating quality, it was thought,

was unjustly ascribed to them, as they only bored into a soft substance that was hardened by time. This opinion, however, has been confuted, in a very satisfactory manner, by Dr. Bohadsch, who observed, that many of the pillars of the temple of Serapis at Puteoli, were penetrated by these animals. From thence he very justly concludes, that the pholades must have pierced into them since they were erected, for no workmen would have laboured a pillar into form, if it had been honey-combed by worms in the quarry. In short, there can be no doubt but that the pillars were perfectly sound when erected; and that the pholades have attacked them during the time in which they continued buried under water, by means of the earthquake that swallowed up the city.*

From hence it appears, that in all nature there is not a greater instance of perseverance and patience than what this animal is seen to exhibit. Furnished with the bluntest and softest augur, by slow successive applications it effects what other animals are incapable of performing by force, penetrating the hardest bodies only with its tongue. When, while yet naked and very small, it has effected an entrance, and has buried its body in the stone, it there continues for life at its ease; the sea water that enters at the little aperture supplying it with luxurious plenty. When the animal has taken too great a quantity of water, it is seen to spurt it out of its hole with some violence. Upon this seemingly thin diet it quickly grows larger, and soon finds itself under the necessity of enlarging its habitation and its shell. The motion of the pholas is slow beyond conception; its progress keeps pace with the growth of its body: and in proportion as it becomes larger, it makes its way farther into the rock. When it has got a certain

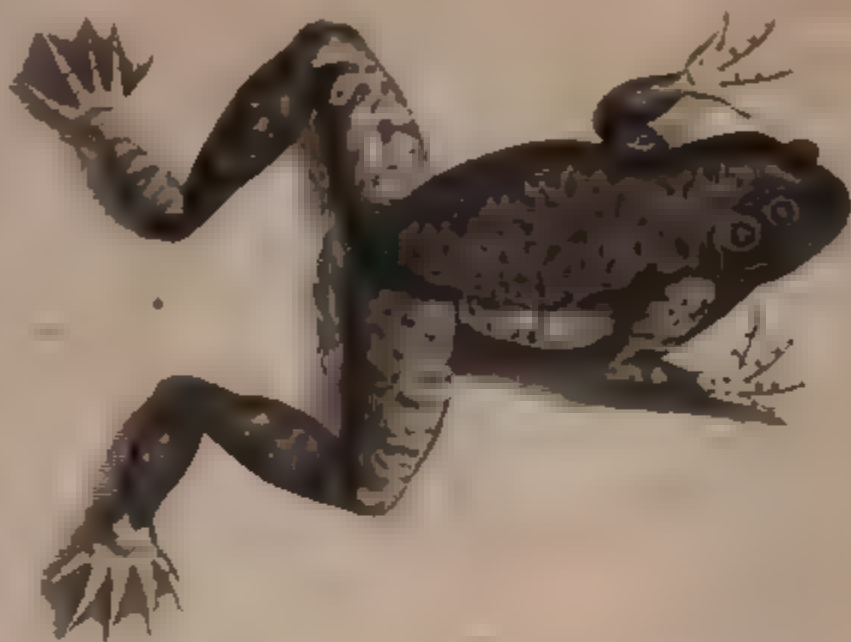
* Bohadsch de *Animalibus Marinis*, p. 153.

way in, it then turns from its former direction, and hollows downwards; till, at last, when its habitation is completed, the whole apartment resembles the bowl of a tobacco-pipe, the hole in the shank being that by which the animal entered.

Thus immured, the pholas lives in darkness, indolence, and plenty; it never removes from the narrow mansion into which it has penetrated, and seems perfectly content with being enclosed in its own sepulchre. The influx of the sea water, that enters by its little gallery, satisfies all its wants; and, without any other food, it is found to grow from seven to eight inches long, and thick in proportion.

But they are not supplied only with their rocky habitation; they have also a shell to protect them: this shell grows upon them in the body of the rock, and seems a very unnecessary addition to the defence which they have procured themselves by art. These shells take different forms, and are often composed of a different number of valves; sometimes six, sometimes but three; sometimes the shell resembles a tube with holes at either end, one for the mouth, and the other for voiding the excrements.

Yet the pholas, thus shut up, is not so solitary an animal as it would at first appear; for though it is immured in its hole without egress; though it is impossible for the animal, grown to a great size, to get out by the way it made in, yet many of this kind often meet in the heart of the rock, and, like miners in a siege, who sometimes cross each other's galleries, they frequently break in upon each other's retreats. Whether their thus meeting be the work of accident, or of choice few can take upon them to determine; certain it is, they are most commonly found in numbers in the same rock, and sometimes above twenty are discovered within a few inches of each other.



1. Frog 2. Pipal or Surinam Toad
3. Chalcidian Lizard.

As to the rest, this animal is found in greatest numbers at Ancona, in Italy; it is found along the shores of Normandy and Poitou in France; it is found also upon some of the coasts of Scotland; and in general is considered as a very great delicacy at the tables of the luxurious.

OF FROGS, LIZARDS, AND SERPENTS.

CHAPTER I.

OF FROGS AND TOADS IN GENERAL.

IF we emerge from the deep, the first and most obvious class of amphibious animals that occur upon land are frogs and toads. These, wherever they reside, seem equally adapted for living upon land and in the water, having their hearts formed in such a manner as to dispense with the assistance of the lungs in carrying on the circulation. The frog and the toad therefore can live several days under water, without any danger of suffocation: they want but little air at the bottom, and what is wanting is supplied by lungs, like bladders, which are generally distended with wind, and answer all the purposes of a reservoir from whence to breathe.

To describe the form of animals so well known would be superfluous; to mark those differences that distinguish them from each other, may be necessary. The frog moves by leaping, the toad crawls along the ground. The frog is in general less than the toad, its colour is brighter, and with a more polished surface; the toad is brown, rough, and dusky. The frog

is light and active, and its belly comparatively small; the toad is slow, swoln, and incapable of escaping. The frog when taken contracts itself so as to have a lump on its back; the toad's back is straight and even. Their internal parts are nearly the same, except that the lungs of the toad are more compact than those of the frog: they have air-bladders, and of consequence the animal is less fitted for living under water. Such are the differences with respect to figure and conformation; their habitudes and manners exhibit a greater variety, and require a separate description.

CHAPTER II.

OF THE FROG, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE external figure of the frog is too well known to need a description. Its power of taking large leaps is remarkably great, compared to the bulk of its body. It is the best swimmer of all four-footed animals; and nature hath finely adapted its parts for those ends, the arms being light and active, the legs and thighs long, and furnished with very strong muscles.

If we examine this animal internally, we shall find that it has a very little brain for its size, a very wide swallow, a stomach seemingly small, but capable of great distension. The heart in the frog, as in all other animals that are truly amphibious, has but one ventricle; so that the blood can circulate without the assistance of the lungs while it keeps under water. The lungs resemble a number of small bladders joined together, like the cells of a honey-

comb; they are connected to the back by muscles, and can be distended or exhausted at the animal's pleasure. The male has two testiculi lying near the kidneys, and the female has two ovaries lying near the same place; but neither male nor female have any of the external instruments of generation, the anus serving for that purpose in both. Such are the most striking peculiarities in the anatomy of the frog; and in these it agrees with the toad, the lizard, and the serpent. They are all formed internally pretty much in the same manner, with spongy lungs, a simple heart, and are destitute of the external instruments that serve to continue the kind.

Of all those who have given histories of the frog, M. Ræsel of Nuremberg seems the most accurate and entertaining. His plates of this animal are well known; his assiduity and skilfulness in observing its manners are still more deserving our esteem. Instead, therefore, of following any other, I will take him for my guide; and though it be out of my power to amuse the reader with his beautiful designs, yet there will be some merit in transcribing his history.

The common brown frog begins to couple early in the season, and as soon as the ice is thawed from the stagnating waters. In some places the cold protracts their genial appetite till April, but it generally begins about the middle of March. The male is usually of a grayish-brown colour; the female is more inclining to yellow, speckled with brown. When they couple, the colours of both are nearly alike on the back; but as they change their skins almost every eighth day, the old one falling off in the form of mucus, the male grows yellower, and the female more brown. In the males, the arms and legs are much stronger than in the females; and at the time of coupling they have upon their thumbs a kind of fleshy excrescence, which they fix firmly to the breast of

the female. This Linnæus supposed to be the male instrument of generation; but by closer inspection it is found only of service in holding the female in a more strict embrace. It may be cut off, and the impregnation continue unimpaired; it is sometimes found in the opposite sex, and some of the males are found entirely without it: however, when it is cut off, the male cannot hold the female so strongly as before.

The sexes couple only once a-year, and then continue united sometimes for four days together. At this time they both have their bellies greatly swoln; that of the female being filled with eggs, the male having the skin of the whole body distended with a limpid water, which is ejected in impregnation. As soon as the male has leaped upon the female, he throws his fore-legs round her breast, and closes them so firmly that it is impossible with the naked hands to loose them. The male clasps his fingers between each other in the same manner as people when they are praying: the thumbs press with their thickest sides against the breast of the female; and though she should struggle ever so much, nothing can induce him to let go his hold. The grasp seems involuntary and convulsive; they cannot be easily torn asunder; and they swim, creep, and live united for some days successively, till the female has shed her spawn, which at length she does almost in an instant. But how the impregnation is performed without any apparent instruments of generation, has long been an object of inquiry, and still continues in great obscurity. To investigate the difficulty as carefully as possible, our German philosopher continued to examine their mutual congress for three years together, and availed himself of all the lights that the knife or analogy could furnish.

After having chosen twelve couple of frogs that were thus joined to each other, and having placed

each couple in a glass vessel with water, he scarcely let them out of his sight day or night, and even sat up two nights together to examine their operations. The first day he observed nothing that deserved remark, but the second they began to be agitated more than before; the males made a noise somewhat resembling the grunting of a hog, the females only kept sinking and rising in the water.

The male of the first couple ejected the humidity with which his body was swoln, by which the water in the glass was made muddy, and he soon after quitted the female. Our philosopher continued for twelve hours to observe whether the female would cast her spawn; but finding her tardy, he dissected both her and the male: in the latter, the spermatic vessels were quite empty, as might naturally have been supposed; but for the female, her spawn still remained in her body. Upon its being extracted, and put into water, it perished without producing any animal whatever. From hence he justly concluded, that it required that the eggs should be ejected from the body of the female before they could be at all prolific. In another pair the male quitted the female, who did not eject her spawn till sixteen days after; and these, like the former, came to nothing. But it was very different with some of the rest. The females ejected their spawn, while the male still remained in his station, and impregnated the masses at different intervals as they fell from her; and these all brought forth animals in the usual course of generation. From these observations it was easy to infer, that the female was impregnated neither by the mouth, as some philosophers imagined, nor by the excrescence at the thumbs, as was the opinion of Linnæus, but by the inspersion of the male seminal fluid upon the eggs as they proceeded from the body.

A single female produces from six to eleven hun-

dred eggs at a time; and in general she throws them all out together by a single effort, though sometimes she is an hour in performing this task. While she is thus bringing forth, it may be observed, that the male acts the part of a midwife, and promotes the expulsion of the eggs by working with his thumbs and compressing the female's body more closely. The eggs, which were compressed in the womb, upon being emitted, expand themselves into a round form, and drop to the bottom of the water; while the male swims off, and strikes with his arms as usual, though they had continued so long in a state of violent contraction.

The egg, or little black globe, which produces a tadpole, is surrounded with two different kinds of liquor. That which immediately surrounds the globe is clear and transparent, and contained in its proper membrane; that which surrounds the whole is muddy and mucous. The transparent liquor serves for the nourishment of the tadpole from time to time, and answers the same purpose that the white of the egg does to birds. The tadpoles, when this membrane is broken, are found to adhere with their mouth to part of it, and when they get free they immediately sink to the bottom of the water, never being able to get to the top after, while they continue in their tadpole form.

But to return:—When the spawn is emitted and impregnated by the male, it drops, as was said, to the bottom, and there the white quickly and sensibly increases. The eggs, which during the four first hours suffer no perceptible change, begin then to enlarge and grow lighter, by which means they mount to the surface of the water. At the end of eight hours the white in which they swim grows thicker, the eggs lose their blackness, and, as they increase in size, somewhat of their spherical form.

The twenty-first day the egg is seen to open a little on one side, and the beginning of a tail to peep out, which becomes more and more distinct every day. The thirty-ninth day the little animal begins to have motion; it moves at intervals its tail; and it is perceived that the liquor in which it is circumfused serves for its nourishment. In two days more, some of these little creatures fall to the bottom, while others remain swimming in the fluid around them, while their vivacity and motion is seen to increase. Those which fall to the bottom remain there the whole day; but having lengthened themselves a little, for hitherto they are doubled up, they mount at intervals to the mucus which they had quitted, and are seen to feed upon it with great vivacity. The next day they acquire their tadpole form. In three days more they are perceived to have two little fringes, that serve as fins beneath the head; and these in four days after assume a more perfect form. It is then also that they are seen to feed very greedily upon the pond-weed with which they are to be supplied; and, leaving their former food, on this they continue to subsist till they arrive at maturity. When they come to be ninety-two days old, two small feet are seen beginning to bourgeon near the tail, and the head appears to be separate from the body. The next day the legs are considerably enlarged; four days after, they refuse all vegetable food; their mouth appears furnished with teeth; and their hinder legs are completely formed. In two days more the arms are completely produced; and now the frog is every way perfect, except that it still continues to carry the tail. In this odd situation the animal, resembling at once both a frog and a lizard, is seen frequently rising to the surface, not to take food but to breathe. In this state it continues for about six or eight hours; and then the tail dropping off by degrees, the animal appears in its most perfect form.

Thus the frog, in less than a day, having changed its figure, is seen to change its appetites also. So extraordinary is this transformation, that the food it fed upon so greedily but a few days before, is now utterly rejected; it would even starve if supplied with no other. As soon as the animal acquires its perfect state, from having fed upon vegetables it becomes carnivorous, and lives entirely upon worms and insects. But as the water cannot supply these, it is obliged to quit its native element, and seek for food upon land, where it lives by hunting worms and taking insects by surprise. At first, being feeble, and unable to bear the warmth of the sun, it hides among bushes and under stones; but when a shower comes to refresh the earth, then the whole multitude are seen to quit their retreats, in order to enjoy the grateful humidity. Upon many occasions the ground is seen perfectly blackened with their numbers; some hunting for prey, and some seeking secure lurking-places. From the myriads that offer on such occasions, some have been induced to think that these animals were generated in the clouds, and thus showered down on the earth. But had they, like Derham, traced them to the next pool, they would have found out a better solution for the difficulty.

The frog lives for the most part out of the water; but when the cold nights begin to set in, it returns to its native element, always choosing stagnant waters, where it can lie without danger concealed at the bottom. In this manner it continues torpid, or with but very little motion, all the winter: like the rest of the dormant race, it requires no food; and the circulation is slowly carried on without any assistance from the air.

It is at the approach of spring that all these animals are roused from a state of slumber to a state of enjoyment. A short time after they rise from the

bottom they begin to pair, while those that are as yet too young come upon land before the rest. For this reason, while the old ones continue concealed in the beginning of spring, the small ones are more frequently seen; the former remaining in the lake to propagate, while the latter are not yet arrived at a state of maturity.

The difference of sexes, which was mentioned above, is not perceivable in these animals until they have arrived at their fourth year; nor do they begin to propagate till they have completed that period. By comparing their slow growth with their other habits, it would appear that they live about twelve years; but having so many enemies, both by land and water, it is probable that few of them arrive at the end of their term.

Frogs live upon insects of all kinds; but they never eat any unless they have motion. They continue fixed and immoveable till their prey appears; and just when it comes sufficiently near, they jump forward with great agility, dart out their tongues, and seize it with certainty. The tongue in this animal, as in the toad, lizard, and serpent kinds, is extremely long, and formed in such a manner that it swallows the point down its throat; so that a length of tongue is thus drawn out, like a sword from its scabbard, to assail its prey. This tongue is furnished with a glutinous substance, and whatever insect it touches, infallibly adheres, and is thus held fast till it is drawn into the mouth.

As the frog is thus supplied with the power of catching its prey, it is also very vivacious, and able to bear hunger for a very long time. I have known one of them continue a month in summer without any other food than the turf on which it was placed in a glass vessel. We are told of a German surgeon, that kept one eight years in a glass vessel covered

with a net. Its food was at all times but sparing; in summer he gave it fresh grass, which it is said to have fed upon, and in the winter, hay a little moistened; he likewise now and then put flies into the glass, which it would follow with an open mouth, and was very expert in catching them. In winter, when the flies were difficult to be found, it usually fell away, and grew very lean; but in the summer, when they were plenty, it soon grew fat again. It was kept in a warm room, and was always lively and ready to take its prey; however, in the eighth winter, when there were no flies to be found, it fell away and died. It is not certain how long it might have lived had it been supplied with proper nourishment; but we are certain, that a very little food is capable of sufficing its necessities.

Nor is the frog less tenacious of life. It will live and jump about several hours after its head has been cut off; it will continue active, though all its bowels are taken out; and it can live some days though entirely stripped of its skin. This cruel trick, which is chiefly practised among school-boys, of skinning frogs, an operation which is done in an instant, seems for some hours no way to abate their vigour. I am assured that some of them get a new skin, and recover after this painful experiment.

The croaking of frogs is well known; and from thence, in some countries, they are distinguished by the ludicrous title of *Dutch Nightingales*. Indeed, the aquatic frogs of Holland are loud beyond what one would imagine. We could hardly conceive that an animal, not bigger than one's fist, should be able to send forth a note that is heard at three miles distance; yet such is actually the case.* The large water frogs have a note as loud as the bellowing of a bull; and, for this purpose, puff up the cheeks to

* Ræsel, Ibid.

a surprising magnitude. Of all frogs, however, the male only croaks; the female is silent, and the voice in the other seems to be the call to courtship. It is certain, that at those times when they couple, the loudness of their croaking is in some places very troublesome; for then the whole lake seems vocal, and a thousand dissonant notes perfectly stun the neighbourhood. At other times also, before wet weather, their voices are in full exertion; they are then heard, with unceasing assiduity, sending forth their call, and welcoming the approaches of their favourite moisture. No weather-glass was ever so true as a frog in foretelling an approaching change; and, in fact, the German surgeon, mentioned above, kept his frog for that purpose. It was always heard to croak at the approach of wet weather, but was as mute as a fish, when it threatened a continuance of fair. This may probably serve to explain an opinion which some entertain, that there is a month in the year called *Paddock Moon*, in which the frogs never croak; the whole seems to be no more than that, in the hot season, when the moisture is dried away, and consequently when these animals neither enjoy the quantity of health or food that at other times they are supplied with, they show, by their silence, how much they are displeased with the weather. All very dry weather is hurtful to their health, and prevents them from getting their prey. They subsist chiefly upon worms and snails; and as drought prevents these from appearing, the frog is thus stinted in its provisions, and also wants that grateful humidity which moistens its skin, and renders it alert and active.

As frogs adhere closely to the backs of their own species, so it has been found, by repeated experience, they will also adhere to the backs of fishes. Few that have ponds but know, that these animals will stick to the backs of carp, and fix their fingers

in the corner of each eye. In this manner they are often caught together; the carp blinded and wasted away. Whether this proceeds from the desires of the frog, disappointed of its proper mate, or whether it be a natural enmity between frogs and fishes, I will not take upon me to say. A story told us by Walton, might be apt to incline us to the latter opinion.

“As Dubravius, a bishop of Bohemia, was walking with a friend by a large pond in that country, they saw a frog, when a pike lay very sleepily and quiet by the shore side, leap upon his head, and the frog having expressed malice or anger by his swoln cheeks and staring eyes, did stretch out his legs, and embraced the pike’s head, and presently reached them to his eyes, tearing with them and his teeth those tender-parts: the pike, irritated with anguish, moves up and down the water, and rubs himself against weeds, and whatever he thought might quit him of his enemy; but all in vain, for the frog did continue to ride triumphantly, and to bite and torment the pike till his strength failed, and then the frog sunk with the pike to the bottom of the water: then presently the frog appeared again at the top and croaked, and seemed to rejoice like a conqueror; after which he presently retired to his secret hole. The bishop that had beheld the battle called his fisherman to fetch his nets, and by all means to get the pike, that they might declare what had happened. The pike was drawn forth, and both his eyes eaten out; at which when they began to wonder, the fisherman wished them to forbear, and assured them he was certain that pikes were often so served.”

CHAPTER III.

OF THE TOAD, AND ITS VARIETIES.

IF we regard the figure of the Toad, there seems nothing in it that should disgust more than that of the frog. Its form and proportions are nearly the same; and it chiefly differs in colour, which is blacker; and its slow and heavy motion, which exhibits nothing of the agility of the frog: yet such is the force of habit, begun in early prejudice, that those who consider the one as a harmless, playful animal, turn from the other with horror and disgust. The frog is considered as an useful assistant in ridding our grounds of vermin; the toad as a secret enemy, that only wants an opportunity to infect us with its venom.

The imagination, in this manner biassed by its terrors, paints out the toad in the most hideous colouring, and clothes it in more than natural deformity. Its body is broad; its back flat, covered with a dusky, pimpled hide; the belly is large and swagging; the pace laboured and crawling; its retreat gloomy and filthy; and its whole appearance calculated to excite disgust and horror: yet upon my first seeing a toad, none of all these deformities in the least affected me with sensations of loathing: Born, as I was, in a country where there are no toads, I had prepared my imagination for some dreadful object; but there seemed nothing to me more alarming in the sight than in that of a common frog; and indeed, for some time, I mistook and handled the one for the other. When first informed of my mistake, I very well remember my sensations: I wondered how I had escaped with safety, after handling and dissecting a toad, which I had mistaken for a frog. I then began to lay in a fund of horror against the whole tribe,

which, though convinced, they are harmless, I shall never get rid of. My first imaginations were too strong, not only for my reason, but for the conviction of my senses.

As the toad bears a general resemblance of figure to the frog, so also it resembles that animal in its nature and appetites. Like the frog, the toad is amphibious; like that animal, it lives upon worms and insects, which it seizes by darting out its length of tongue; and in the same manner also it crawls about in moist weather. The male and female couple as in all the frog kind, their time of propagation being very early in the spring. Sometimes the females are seen upon land, oppressed by the males, but more frequently they are coupled in the water. They continue together some hours, and adhere so fast as to tear the very skin from the parts they stick to. In all this they entirely resemble the frog, but the assistance which the male lends the female in bringing forth, is a peculiarity in this species that must not be passed over in silence.

“In the evening of a summer’s day, a French gentleman, being in the king’s gardens at Paris, perceived two toads coupled together, and he stopped to examine them. Two facts equally new surprised him: the first was the extreme difficulty the female had in laying her eggs; the second was the assistance lent her by the male for this purpose. The eggs of the female lie in her body like beads on a string; and after the first, by great effort, was excluded, the male caught it with his hinder paws, and kept working it till he had thus extracted the whole chain. In this manner the animal performed, in some measure, the functions of a midwife; impregnating, at the same time, every egg as it issued from the body.”

It is probable, however, that this difficulty in bringing forth obtains only upon land; and that the toad

which produces its spawn in the water, performs it with as much ease as a frog. They propagate, in England, exactly in the manner of frogs; and the female, instead of retiring to dry holes, goes to the bottom of ponds, and there lies torpid all the winter, preparing to propagate in the beginning of spring. On these occasions, the number of males is found greatly to surpass that of the other sex, there being above thirty to one; and twelve or fourteen are often seen clinging to the same female.

When, like the frog, they have undergone all the variations of their tadpole state, they forsake the water; and are often seen in a moist summer's evening, crawling up, by myriads, from fenny places into drier situations. There, having found out a retreat, or having dug themselves one with their mouths and hands, they lead a patient, solitary life, seldom venturing out, except when the moisture of a summer's evening invites them abroad. At that time the grass is filled with snails, and the pathways covered with worms, which make their principal food. Insects also of every kind they are fond of; and we have the authority of Linnæus for it, that they sometimes continue immoveable, with their mouth open, at the bottom of shrubs, where the butterflies, in some measure fascinated, are seen to fly down their throats.*

In a letter from Mr. Arscott there are some curious particulars relating to this animal, which throw great light upon its history. "Concerning the toad," says he, "that lived so many years with us, and was so great a favourite, the greatest curiosity was its becoming so remarkably tame: it had frequented some steps before our hall-door some years before my acquaintance commenced with it, and had been admired by my father for its size, (being the largest I ever met with,) who constantly paid it a visit every

* *Annæit.* vol. vi. p. 201.

evening. I knew it myself above thirty years; and by constantly feeding it, brought it to be so tame, that it always came to the candle and looked up, as if expecting to be taken up and brought upon the table, where I always fed it with insects of all sorts. It was fondest of flesh maggots, which I kept in bran; it would follow them, and when within a proper distance, would fix its eyes, and remain motionless for near a quarter of a minute, as if preparing for the stroke, which was an instantaneous throwing its tongue at a great distance upon the insect, which was stuck to the tip by a glutinous matter. The motion is quicker than the eye can follow.—I cannot say how long my father had been acquainted with the toad before I knew it; but when I was first acquainted with it, he used to mention it as the old toad I have known so many years. I can answer for thirty-six years. This old toad made its appearance as soon as the warm weather came; and I always concluded it retired to some dry bank to repose till spring. When we new-laid the steps, I had two holes made on the third step, on each with a hollow of more than a yard long for it; in which I imagine it slept, as it came from thence at its first appearance. It was seldom provoked. Neither that toad nor the multitudes I have seen tormented with great cruelty, ever showed the least desire of revenge, by spitting or emitting any juice from their pimples. Sometimes, upon taking it up, it would let out a great quantity of clear water, which as I have often seen it do the same upon the steps when quite quiet, was certainly its urine, and no more than a natural evacuation. Spiders, millepedes, and flesh maggots, seem to be this animal's favourite food. I imagine, if a bee was to be put before a toad, it would certainly eat it to its cost;* but as bees are seldom stirring at the same

* Ræsel tried a frog: it swallowed the bee alive, its stomach was stung, and the animal vomited it up again.

time that toads are, they rarely come in their way, as they do not appear after sun-rising, or before sunset. In the heat of the day they will come to the mouth of their hole, I believe for air. I once, from my parlour window, observed a large toad I had in the bank of a bowling-green, about twelve at noon, in a very hot day, very busy and active upon the grass. So uncommon an appearance made me go out to see what it was, when I found an innumerable swarm of winged ants had dropped round his hole, which temptation was as irresistible as a turtle would be to a luxurious alderman. In respect to its end, had it not been for a tame raven, I make no doubt but it would have been now living. This bird one day seeing it at the mouth of its hole, pulled it out, and although I rescued it, pulled out one eye, and hurt it so, that notwithstanding its living a twelvemonth, it never enjoyed itself, and had a difficulty of taking its food, missing the mark for want of its eye. Before that accident, it had all the appearance of perfect health."

To this account of the toad's inoffensive qualities, I will add another from Valisnieri, to show, that even taken internally the toad is no way dangerous, "In the year 1692, some German soldiers, who had taken possession of the castle of Arceti, finding that the peasants of the country often amused themselves in catching frogs, and dressing them for the table, resolved to provide themselves with a like entertainment, and made preparations for frog-fishing in the same manner. It may easily be supposed that the Italians and their German guests were not very fond of each other, and indeed it is natural to think that the soldiers gave the poor people of the country many good reasons for discontent. They were not a little pleased, therefore, when they saw them go to a ditch where toads instead of frogs were found in abun-

dance. The Germans, no way distinguishing in their sport, caught them in great numbers; while the peasants kept looking on, silently flattering themselves with the hopes of speedy revenge. After being brought home, the toads were dressed up after the Italian fashion, the peasants quite happy at seeing their tyrants devour them with so good an appetite, and expecting every moment to see them drop down dead. But what was their surprise to find that the Germans continued as well as ever, and only complained of a slight excoriation of the lips, which probably arose from some other cause than that of their repast."

I will add another story from Solenander, who tells us that a tradesman of Rome and his wife had long lived together with mutual discontent; the man was dropsical, and the woman amorous: this ill-matched society promised soon, by the very infirm state of the man, to have an end; but the woman was unwilling to wait the progress of the disorder, and therefore concluded, that to get rid of her husband nothing was left her but poison. For this purpose, she chose out a dose that she supposed would be the most effectual; and having calcined some toads, mixed their powder with his drink. The man, after taking a hearty dose, found no considerable inconvenience, except that it greatly promoted urine. His wife, who considered this as a beginning symptom of the venom, resolved not to stint the next dose, but gave it in greater quantities than before. This also increased the former symptom; and in a few days the woman had the mortification to see her detested husband restored to perfect health, and remained in utter despair of ever being a widow.

From all this it will appear with what injustice this animal has hitherto been treated. It has undergone every sort of reproach; and mankind have been

taught to consider as an enemy a creature that destroys that insect tribe which are their real invaders. We are to treat, therefore, as fables those accounts that represent the toad as possessed of poison to kill at a distance; of its ejecting its venom, which burns wherever it touches; of its infecting those vegetables near which it resides; of its excessive fondness for sage, which it renders poisonous by its approach: these, and a hundred others of the same kind, probably took rise from an antipathy which some have to all animals of the kind. It is a harmless defenceless creature, torpid and unvenomous, and seeking the darkest retreats, not from the malignity of its nature, but the multitude of its enemies.

Like all of the frog kind, the toad is torpid in winter. It chooses then for a retreat either the hollow root of a tree, the cleft of a rock, or sometimes the bottom of a pond, where it is found in a state of seeming insensibility. As it is very long-lived, it is very difficult to be killed: its skin is tough, and cannot be easily pierced; and though covered with wounds, the animal continues to show signs of life, and every part appears in motion. But what shall we say to its living for centuries lodged in the bosom of a rock, or cased within the body of an oak tree, without the smallest access on any side either for nourishment or air, and yet taken out alive and perfect! Stories of this kind it would be as rash to contradict as difficult to believe; we have the highest authorities bearing witness to their truth, and yet the whole analogy of nature seems to arraign them of falsehood. Bacon asserts that toads are found in this manner; Dr. Plot asserts the same. There is to this day a marble chimney-piece at Chatsworth with the print of the toad upon it, and a tradition of the manner in which it was found. In the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences there is an account of a toad found alive

and healthy in the heart of a very thick elm, without the smallest entrance or egress.* In the year 1731 there was another found near Nantes in the heart of an old oak, without the smallest issue to its cell: and the discoverer was of opinion, from the size of the tree, that the animal could not have been confined there less than eighty or a hundred years without sustenance and without air. To all these we can only oppose the strangeness of the facts; the necessity this animal appears under of receiving air; and its dying like all other animals in the air-pump when deprived of this all-sustaining fluid. But whether these be objections to weigh against such respectable and disinterested authority, I will not pretend to determine; certain it is, that if kept in a damp place the toad will live for several months without any food whatsoever.

To this extraordinary account which is doubtful, I will add another not less so; which is that of toads sucking cancerous breasts, and thus extracting the venom and performing a cure. The first account we have of this is in a letter to the Bishop of Carlisle from Dr. Pitfield, who was the first person of consequence that attended the experiment. His letter is as follows:

“Your lordship must have taken notice of a paragraph in the papers with regard to the application of toads to a cancered breast. A patient of mine has sent to the neighbourhood of Hungerford, and brought down the very woman on whom the cure was done. I have, with all the attention I am capable of, attended the operation for eighteen or twenty days, and am surprised at the phenomenon. I am in no expectation of any great service from the application; the age, constitution, and thoroughly cancerous condition of the person, being unconquerable

* *Vide* the year 1719.

barriers to it. How an ailment of that kind, absolutely local, in an otherwise sound habit, and of a likely age, might be relieved, I cannot say. But as to the operation, thus much I can assert, that there is neither pain nor nauseousness in it. The animal is put into a linen bag all but its head, and that is held to the part. It has generally instantly laid hold of the foulest part of the sore, and sucked with greediness until it dropped off dead. It has frequently happened that the creature has swoln immediately, and from its agonies appeared to be in great pain. I have weighed them for several days together, before and after the application, and found their increase of weight, in their different degrees, from a drachm to near an ounce. They frequently sweat exceedingly, and turn quite pale; sometimes they disgorge, recover, and become lively again. I think the whole scene is surprising, and a very remarkable piece of natural history. From the constant inoffensiveness which I have observed in them, I almost question the truth of their poisonous spitting. Many people here expect no great good from the application of toads to cancers; and where the disorder is not absolutely local, none is to be expected. When it is seated in any part not to be well come at for extirpation, I think it is hardly to be imagined but that the having it sucked clean as often as you please must give great relief. Every body knows that dogs licking of sores cures them, which is, I suppose, chiefly by keeping them clean. If there is any credit to be given to history, poisons have been sucked out. *Pallentia vulnera lambit ore venena trahens*, are the words of Lucan on the occasion. If the people to whom these words are applied did their cure by immediately following the injection of the poison, the local confinement of another poison brings the case to a great degree of similarity. I hope I have not tired your lordship with

my long tale: as it is a true one, and in my apprehension a curious piece of natural history, I could not forbear communicating it to you. I own I thought the story in the papers to be an invention; and when I considered the instinctive principle in all animals of self-preservation, I was confirmed in my disbelief: but what I have related I saw; and all theory must yield to fact. It is only the *rubeth*, the land-toad, which has the property of sucking: I cannot find any the least mention of the property in any one of the old naturalists. My patient can bear to have but one applied in twenty-four hours. The woman who was cured had them on day and night without intermission for five weeks. Their time of hanging at the breast has been from one to six hours."

Other remarks made upon their method of performing this extraordinary operation are as follow:

"Some toads die very soon after they have sucked, others live about a quarter of an hour, and some much longer. For example, one that was applied about seven o'clock sucked till ten, and died as soon as it was taken from the breast; another that immediately succeeded continued till three o'clock, but dropped dead from the wound; each swelled exceedingly, and of a pale colour. They do not seem to suck greedily, and often turn their heads away; but during the time of their sucking they were heard to smack their lips like a young child."

From this circumstantial account of the progress of this extraordinary application, one could hardly suppose that any doubt could remain of the ingenious observer's accuracy; and yet, from information which I have received from authority still more respectable, there is much reason as yet to suspend our assent. A lady, who was under the care of the present president of the College of Physicians, was in-

* British Zoology, vol. iii, p. 338.

duced by her friends to try the experiment: and as he saw the case was desperate, and that it would quiet her mind as well as theirs, he permitted the trial. During the whole continuance of their application, she could never thoroughly perceive that they sucked her; but that did not prevent their swelling and dying, as in the former instances. Once, indeed, she said, she thought that one of them seemed to suck; but the physician, and those who attended, could not perceive any appearance of it. Thus, after all, it is a doubt whether these animals die by the internal or the external application of the cancerous poison.

Of this animal there are several varieties; such as the Water and the Land Toad, which probably differ only in the ground-colour of their skin. In the first it is more inclining to ash colour, with brown spots; in the other, the colour is brown, approaching to black. The water toad is not so large as the other; but both equally bred in that element. The size of the toad, with us, is generally from two to four inches long; but in the fenny countries of Europe I have seen them much larger, and not less than a common erab, when brought to table. But this is nothing to what they are found in some of the tropical climates, where travellers often, for the first time, mistake a toad for a tortoise. Their usual size is from six to seven inches; but there are some still larger, and as broad as a plate. Of these some are beautifully streaked and coloured; some studded over, as with pearls; other bristled with horns or spines; some have the head distinct from the body, while others have it so sunk in, that the animal appears without a head. All these are found in the tropical climates in great abundance, and particularly after a shower of rain. It is then that the streets seem entirely paved with them; they then crawl from their retreats,

and go into all places, to enjoy their favourite moisture. With us, the opinion of its raining toads and frogs has long been justly exploded; but it still is entertained in the tropical countries, and that not only by the savage natives, but the more refined settlers who are apt enough to add the prejudices of other nations to their own.

It would be a tedious, as well as an useless task, to enter into all the minute discriminations of these animals, as found in different countries or places; but the Pipal, or the Surinam Toad, is too strange a creature not to require an exact description.—There is not, perhaps in all nature, a more extraordinary phenomenon, than that of an animal breeding and hatching its young in its back; from whence, as from a kind of hot-bed, they crawl, one after the other, when come to maturity.

The pipal is in form more hideous than even the common toad, nature seeming to have marked all those strange mannered animals with peculiar deformity. The body is flat and broad; the head small; the jaws, like those of a mole, are extended, and evidently formed for rooting in the ground; the skin of the neck forms a sort of wrinkled collar; the colour of the head is of a dark chesnut, and the eyes are small; the back, which is very broad, is of a lightish gray, and seems covered over with a number of small eyes, which are round, and placed at nearly equal distances. These eyes are very different from what they seem; they are the animal's eggs, covered with their shells, and placed there for hatching. These eggs are buried deep in the skin, and in the beginning of incubation but just appear; and are very visible when the young animal is about to burst from its confinement. They are of a reddish shining yellow colour; and the spaces between them are full of small warts, resembling pearls.

This is their situation previous to their coming forth; but nothing so much demands our admiration as the manner of their production. The eggs, when formed in the ovary, are sent, by some internal canals, which anatomists have not hitherto described, to lie and come to maturity under the bony substance of the back: in this state they are impregnated by the male, whose seed finds its way by pores very singularly contrived, and pierces not only the skin, but the periosteum: the skin, however, is still apparently entire, and forms a very thick covering over the whole brood; but as they advance to maturity, at different intervals, one after another, the egg seems to start forward and burgeon from the back, becomes more yellow, and at last breaks, when the young one puts forth its head: it still, however, keeps its situation, until it has acquired a proper degree of strength, and then it leaves the shell, but still continues to keep upon the back of the parent. In this manner the pipal is seen travelling with her wondrous family on her back, in all the different stages of maturity. Some of the strange progeny, not yet come to sufficient perfection; appear quite torpid, and as yet without life, in the egg; others seem just beginning to rise through the skin, here peeping forth from the shell, and there having entirely forsaken their prison; some are sporting at large upon the parent's back, and others descending to the ground, to try their own fortune below.

Such is the description given us of this strange production by Seba; in which he differs from Ruysch, who affirms that the young ones are bred in the back of the male only, where the female lays her eggs. I have followed Seba, however, not because he is better authority, but because he is more positive of the truth of his account, and asserts, assuredly, that the eggs are found on the back of the female only. Many

circumstances, however, are wanting towards completing his information; such as a description of the passage by which the egg finds its way into the back; the manner of its fecundation; the time of gestation; as also a history of the manners of this strange animal itself; but by a prolixity that too much prevails among naturalists at present, he leaves the most interesting object of curiosity, to give us a detailed description of the legs and claws of the pipal, about which we have very little concern.

The male pipal is every way larger than the female, and has the skin less tightly drawn round the body. The whole body is covered with pustules, resembling pearls; and the belly, which is of a bright yellow, seems as if it were sewed up from the throat to the vent, a seam being seen to run in that direction. This animal, like the rest of the frog kind, is most probably harmless; though we are told of the terrible effects resulting from its powder when calcined. This, however, must certainly be false: no creature whatever, when calcined, can be poisonous; for the fire burns away whatever might have been dangerous in their composition: all animal substances, when calcined, being entirely the same.

CHAPTER IV.

OF LIZARDS IN GENERAL.

THERE is scarcely a naturalist who has treated of Lizards, but has a particular manner of ranking them in the scale of animated nature. Ray, rather struck with the number of their legs than their habits and conformation, has exalted them among quadrupeds; while Linnæus, attentive only to their long



Chelys h. and 2. f. m. m. m.

slender forms, has degraded them among serpents. Brisson gives them a distinct class by themselves, under the name of Reptiles. Klein gives them a class inferior to beasts, under the name of Naked Quadrupeds. Some, in short, from their scaly covering, and fondness for the water, have given them to the fishes; while there have not been wanting naturalists who have classed them with insects, as the smaller kinds of this class seem to demand.

It is indeed no easy matter to tell to what class in nature lizards are chiefly allied. They are unjustly raised to the rank of beasts, as they bring forth eggs, dispense with breathing, and are not covered with hair: They cannot be placed among fishes, as the majority of them live upon land; they are excluded from the serpent tribe by their feet, upon which they run with some celerity; and from the insects by their size; for though the newt may be looked upon in this contemptible light, a crocodile would be a terrible insect indeed. Thus lizards are, in some measure, excluded from every rank, while they exhibit somewhat of the properties of all: the legs and celerity of the quadruped; a facility of creeping through narrow and intricate ways, like the serpent; and a power of living in the water, like fishes: however, though endued with these various powers, they have no real advantages over any other class of animated nature; for what they gain in aptitude for one element, they lose in their fitness for another. Thus, between both, they are an awkward, ungainly tribe; neither so alert upon land, nor so nimble in the water, as the respective inhabitants of either abode: and, indeed, this holds throughout all nature, that, in proportion as the seeming advantages of inferior animals are multiplied, their real ones are abridged; and all their instincts are weakened and lost by the variety of channels into which they are divided.

As lizards thus differ from every other class of animals, they also differ widely from each other. With respect to size, no class of beings has its ranks so opposite. What, for instance, can be more removed than the small cameleon, an inch long, and the alligator of the river Amazons, above twenty-seven feet? To an inattentive observer, they would appear entirely of different kinds; and Seba wonders how they ever came to be classed together.

The colour of these animals also is very various, as they are found of a hundred different hues, green, blue, red, chesnut, yellow, spotted, streaked, and marbled. Were colour alone capable of constituting beauty, the lizard would often please; but there is something so repressing in the animal's figure, that the brilliancy of its scales, or the variety of its spots, only tend to give an air of more exquisite venom, of greater malignity. The figure of these animals is not less various: sometimes swoln in the belly; sometimes pursed up at the throat; sometimes with a rough set of spines on the back, like the teeth of a saw; sometimes with teeth, at others with none; sometimes venomous,* at others harmless, and even philanthropic; sometimes smooth and even; sometimes with a long slender tail, and often with a shorter blunt one.

But their greatest distinction arises from their manner of bringing forth their young. Firstly, some of them are viviparous. Secondly, some are oviparous; and which may be considered in three distinct ways. Thirdly, some bring forth small spawn, like fishes. The Crocodile, the Iguana, and all the large kinds, bring forth eggs, which are hatched by the heat of the sun: the animals that issue from them

[* It is now known that none of these animals are provided with poison, and, excepting the alligator and crocodile, they are perfectly harmless.]

are complete upon leaving the shell, and their first efforts are to run to seek food in their proper element. The viviparous kinds, in which are all the salamanders, come forth alive from the body of the female, perfect and active, and suffer no succeeding change. But those which are bred in the water, and, as we have reason to think, from spawn, suffer a very considerable change in their form. They are produced with an external skin or covering, that sometimes encloses their feet, and gives them a serpentine appearance. To this false skin, fins are added, above and below the tail, that serve the animal for swimming; but when the false skin drops off, these drop off also; and then the lizard, with its four feet, is completely formed, and forsakes the water.

From hence it appears, that of this tribe there are three distinct kinds, differently produced, and most probably very different in their formation. But the history of these animals is very obscure, and we are as yet incapable of laying the line that separates them. All we know, as was said before, is, that the great animals of this kind are *mostly* produced perfect from the egg; the salamanders are *generally* viviparous; and *some* of the water lizards imperfectly produced. In all these most unfinished productions of nature, if I may so call them, the varieties in their structure increase in proportion to their imperfections. A poet would say, that nature grew tired of the nauseous formation, and left accident to finish the rest of her handy-work.

However, the three kinds have many points of similitude; and in all their varieties of figure, colour, and production, this tribe is easily distinguished, and strongly marked. They have all four short legs; the two fore-feet somewhat resembling a man's hand and arm. They have tails almost as thick as the body

at the beginning, and that generally run tapering to a point. They are all amphibious also, equally capable of living upon land and water, and formed internally in the same manner with the tortoise, and other animals that can continue a long time without respiration: in other words, their lungs are not so necessary to continue life and circulation, but that their play may be stopped for some considerable time, while the blood performs its circuit round the body by a shorter communication.

These are differences that sufficiently separate lizards from all other animals; but it will be very difficult to fix the limits that distinguish the three kinds from each other. The *crocodile* tribe, and its affinities, are sufficiently distinguished from all the rest by their size and fierceness; the *salamander* tribe is distinguished by their deformity, their frog-like heads, the shortness of their snouts, their swoln bellies, and their viviparous production. With regard to the rest, which we may denominate the *cameleon*, or *lizard kind*, some of which bring forth from the egg, and some of which are imperfectly formed from spawn, we must group them under one head, and leave time to unravel the rest of their history.

CHAPTER V.

OF THE CROCODILE, AND ITS AFFINITIES.

THE Crocodile is an animal placed at a happy distance from the inhabitants of Europe, and formidable only in those regions where men are scarce, and arts are but little known. In all the cultivated and populous parts of the world, the great animals are entirely banished, or rarely seen. The appear-



J. Knappe del.

1. & 2. *Leio Urothemis* 3 *Crocodylus* Linn.



ance of such raises at once a whole country up in arms to oppose their force, and their lives generally pay the forfeit of their temerity. The crocodile, therefore, that was once so terrible along the banks of the river Nile, is now neither so large, nor its number so great as formerly. The arts of mankind have, through a course of ages, powerfully operated to its destruction; and, though it is sometimes seen, it appears comparatively timorous and feeble.

To look for this animal in all its natural terrors, grown to an enormous size, propagated in surprising numbers, and committing unceasing devastations, we must go to the uninhabited regions of Africa and America, to those immense rivers that roll through extensive and desolate kingdoms, where arts have never penetrated, where force only makes distinction, and the most powerful animals exert their strength with confidence and security. Those that sail up the river Amazons, or the river Niger, well know how numerous and terrible those animals are in such parts of the world. In both these rivers, they are found from eighteen to twenty-seven feet long; and sometimes lying as close to each other as a raft of timber upon one of our streams. There they indolently bask on the surface, no way disturbed at the approach of an enemy, since, from the repeated trials of their strength, they find none that they are not able to subdue.

Of this terrible animal there are two kinds; the Crocodile, properly so called, and the Cayman or Alligator. Travellers, however, have rather made the distinction than nature; for in the general outline, and in the nature of these two animals, they are entirely the same. It would be speaking more properly to call these animals the crocodiles of the eastern and the western world; for in books of voyages they are so entirely confounded together, that there is no

knowing whether the Asiatic animal be the Crocodile of Asia, or the Alligator of the western world. The distinctions usually made between the crocodile and alligator are these:—the body of the crocodile is more slender than that of the alligator; its snout runs off tapering from the forehead, like that of a greyhound, while that of the other is indented, like the nose of a lap-dog. The crocodile has a much wider swallow, and is of an ash colour; the alligator is black, varied with white, and is thought not to be so mischievous. All these distinctions, however are very slight and can be reckoned little more than minute variations.

This animal grows to a great length, being sometimes found thirty feet long from the tip of the snout to the end of the tail; its most usual length, however, is eighteen. One which was dissected by the Jesuits at Siam was of the latter dimensions; and as the description which is given of it, both externally and internally, is the most accurate known of this noted animal, I must beg leave to give it as I find it, though somewhat tedious. It was eighteen feet and a half, French measure, in length; of which the tail was no less than five feet and a half, and the head and neck about two feet and a half. It was four feet nine inches in circumference where thickest. The fore-legs had the same parts and conformation as the arms of a man, both within and without. The hands, if they may be so called, had five fingers, the two last of which had no nails, and were of a conical figure. The hinder legs, including the thigh and paw, were two feet two inches long; the paws, from the joint to the extremity of the longest claws, were above nine inches: they were divided into four toes, of which three were armed with large claws, the longest of which was an inch and a half; these toes were united by a membrane like those of a

duck, but much thicker. The head was long, and had a little rising at the top; but the rest was flat, and especially towards the extremity of the jaws. It was covered by a skin, which adhered firmly to the skull and to the jaws. The skull was rough and unequal in several places; and about the middle of the forehead there were two bony crests, about two inches high: the skull between these two crests was proof against a musket-ball for it only rendered the part a little white that it struck against. The eye was very small, in proportion to the rest of the body, and was so placed within its orbit, that the outward part, when the lid was closed, was only an inch long, and the line running parallel to the opening of the jaws. It was covered with a double lid, one within and one without; that within, like the nictitating membrane in birds, was folded in the great corner of the eye, and had a motion towards the tail, but being transparent, it covered the eye without hindering the sight. The iris was very large in proportion to the globe of the eye, and was of a yellowish-gray colour. Above the eye the ear was placed, which opened from above downwards, as if it were by a kind of spring, by means of a solid, thick, cartilaginous substance. The nose was placed in the middle of the upper jaw, near an inch from its extremity, and was perfectly round and flat, being near two inches in diameter, of a black, soft, spongy substance, not unlike the nose of a dog. The jaws seemed to shut one within another; and nothing can be more false than that the animal's under jaw is without motion; it moves, like the lower jaw in all other animals, while the upper is fixed to the skull, and absolutely immoveable. The animal had twenty-seven cutting teeth in the upper jaw, and fifteen in the lower, with several void spaces between them: they were thick at the bottom, and sharp at the point,

being all of different sizes, except ten large hooked ones, six of which were in the lower jaw, and four in the upper. The mouth was fifteen inches in length and eight and a half in breadth, where broadest. The distance of the two jaws, when opened as wide as they could be, was fifteen inches and a half; this is a very wide yawn, and could easily enough take in the body of a man. The colour of the body was of a dark brown on the upper part, and of a whitish citron below, with large spots of both colours on the sides. From the shoulders to the extremity of the tail, the animal was covered with large scales, of a square form, disposed like parallel girdles, and fifty-two in number; but those near the tail were not so thick as the rest. The creature was covered not only with these, but all over with a coat of armour; which, however, was not proof against a musket-ball, contrary to what has been commonly asserted: however, it must be confessed, that the attitude in which the animal was placed, might contribute to render the skin more penetrable; for probably if the ball had struck obliquely against the shell, it would have flown off. Those parts of the girdles underneath the belly were of a whitish colour, and were made up of scales of divers shapes, but not so hard as those on the back.

With respect to the internal parts of the animal, the gullet was large in proportion to the mouth; and a ball of wood, as large as one's head, readily ran down, and was drawn up again. The guts were but short in comparison, being not so long as the animal's body. The tongue, which some have erroneously asserted this animal was without, consisted of a thick spongy soft flesh, and was strongly connected to the lower jaw. The heart was of the size of a calf's, of a bright red colour, the blood passing as well from the veins to the aorta as into the lungs.

There was no bladder; but the kidneys sent the urine to be discharged by the anus. There were sixty-two joints in the back-bone, which, though very closely united, had sufficient play to enable the animal to bend like a bow to the right and the left; so that what we hear of escaping the creature by turning out of the right line, and of the animal not being able to wheel readily after its prey, seems to be fabulous. It is most likely the crocodile can turn with ease, for the joints of its back are not stiffer than those of other animals, which we know by experience can wheel about very nimbly for their size.

Such is the figure and conformation of this formidable animal, that unpeoples countries, and makes the most navigable rivers desert and dangerous. They are seen in some places lying for whole hours, and even days, stretched in the sun, and motionless; so that one not used to them might mistake them for trunks of trees covered with a rough and dry bark: but the mistake would soon be fatal if not prevented; for the torpid animal, at the near approach of any living thing, darts upon it with instant swiftness, and at once drags it down to the bottom. In the times of an inundation they sometimes enter the cottages of the natives, where the dreadful visitant seizes the first animal it meets with. There have been several examples of their taking a man out of a canoe in the sight of his companions, without their being able to lend him any assistance.

The strength of every part of the crocodile is very great; and its arms, both offensive and defensive, irresistible. We have seen from the shortness of its legs, the amazing strength of the tortoise; but what is the strength of such an animal compared to that of the crocodile, whose legs are very short, and whose size is so superior? The back-bone is jointed in the firmest manner, the muscles of the fore and

hinder legs are vigorous and strong, and its whole form calculated for force. Its teeth are sharp, numerous, and formidable; its claws are long and tenacious: but its principal instrument of destruction is the tail—with a single blow of this it has often overturned a canoe, and seized upon the poor savage its conductor.

Though not so powerful, yet it is very terrible even upon land. The crocodile seldom, except when pressed by hunger, or with a view of depositing its eggs, leaves the water. Its usual method is to float along upon the surface, and seize whatever animals come within its reach; but when this method fails, it then goes closer to the bank. Disappointed of its fishy prey, it there waits covered up among the sedges in patient expectation of some land animal that comes to drink, the dog, the bull, the tiger, or man himself. Nothing is to be seen of the insidious destroyer as the animal approaches, nor is its retreat discovered till it be too late for safety. It seizes the victim with a spring, and goes at a bound much faster than so unwieldy an animal could be thought capable of exerting; then, having secured the creature with both teeth and claws, it drags it into the water, instantly sinks with it to the bottom, and in this manner quickly drowns it.

Sometimes it happens, that the creature the crocodile has thus surprised escapes from its grasp wounded, and makes off from the river side. In such a case the tyrant pursues with all its force, and often seizes it a second time; for though seemingly heavy, the crocodile runs with great celerity. In this manner it is sometimes seen above half a mile from the bank in pursuit of an animal wounded beyond the power of escaping, and then dragging it back to the river side, where it feasts in security.

It often happens, in its depredations along the

bank, that the crocodile seizes on a creature as formidable as itself, and meets with a most desperate resistance. We are told of frequent combats between the crocodile and the tiger. All creatures of the tiger kind are continually oppressed by a parching thirst, that keeps them in the vicinity of great rivers, whither they descend to drink very frequently. It is upon these occasions that they are seized by the crocodile, and they die not unrevenged. The instant they are seized upon, they turn with the greatest agility, and force their claws into the crocodile's eyes, while he plunges with his fierce antagonist into the river. There they continue to struggle for some time, till at last the tiger is drowned.

In this manner the crocodile seizes and destroys all animals, and is equally dreaded by all. There is no animal but man alone that can combat it with success. We are assured by Labat, that a Negro, with no other weapons than a knife in his right hand, and his left arm wrapped round with a cow hide, ventures boldly to attack this animal in its own element. As soon as he approaches the crocodile, he presents his left arm, which the animal swallows most greedily: but sticking in its throat, the Negro has time to give it several stabs under the throat; and the water also getting in at the mouth, which is held involuntarily open, the creature is soon bloated up as big as a tun, and expires.

To us who live at a distance from the rapacity of these animals, these stories appear strange, and yet most probably are true. From not having seen any thing so formidable or bold in the circle of our own experience, we are not to determine upon the wonderful transactions in distant climates. It is probable that these, and a number of more dreadful encounters, happen every day among those forests and in those rivers where the most formidable animals are

formed, it does not fail to proceed with some degree of swiftness; and is thought to move as fast as some of the most unwieldy of our own animals, the hog or the cow. Some, indeed, assert that no animal could escape it, but for its difficulty in turning; but to this resource we could wish none would trust who are so unhappy as to find themselves in danger.

Along the rivers of Africa this animal is sometimes taken in the same manner as the shark: several Europeans go together in a large boat, and throw out a piece of beef upon a hook and strong fortified line, which the crocodile seizing and swallowing, is drawn along, floundering and struggling, until its strength is quite exhausted, when it is pierced in the belly, which is its tenderest part; and thus after numberless wounds is drawn ashore. In this part of the world also, as well as at Siam, the crocodile makes an object of savage pomp near the palaces of their monarchs. Phillips informs us that at Sabi, on the Slave Coast, there are two pools of water near the royal palace, where crocodiles are bred, as we breed carp in our ponds in Europe.

Hitherto I have been describing the crocodile as it is found in unpeopled countries, and undisturbed by frequent encounters with mankind. In this state it is fierce and cruel, attacking every object that seems endued with motion; but in Egypt, and other countries long peopled, where the inhabitants are civilized, and the rivers frequented, this animal is solitary and fearful. So far from coming to attack a man, it sinks at his approach with the utmost precipitation; and, as if sensible of superior power, ever declines the engagement. We have seen more than one instance in animated nature of the contempt which at first the lower orders of the creation have for man, till they have experienced his powers of destruction.

The lion and the tiger among beasts, the whale among fishes, the albatross and the penguin among birds, meet the first encounters of man without dread or apprehension; but they soon learn to acknowledge his superiority, and take refuge from his power in the deepest fastnesses of nature. This may account for the different characters which have been given us of the crocodile and the alligator by travellers at different times: some describing them as harmless and fearful, as ever avoiding the sight of a man, and preying only upon fishes; others ranking them among the destroyers of nature, describing them as furnished with strength and impelled by malignity to do mischief, representing them as the greatest enemies of mankind, and particularly desirous of human prey. The truth is, the animal has been justly described by both, being such as it is found in places differently peopled or differently civilized. Wherever the crocodile has reigned long unmolested, it is there fierce, bold, and dangerous; wherever it has been harassed by mankind, its retreats invaded, and its numbers destroyed, it is there timorous and inoffensive.

In some places, therefore, this animal, instead of being formidable, is not only inoffensive, but is cherished and admired. In the river San Domingo, the crocodiles are the most inoffensive animals in nature; the children play with them, and ride about on their backs; they even beat them sometimes without receiving the smallest injury. It is true the inhabitants are very careful of this gentle breed, and consider them as harmless domestics.

It is probable that the smell of musk, which all these animals exhale, may render them agreeable to the savages of that part of Africa. They are often known to take the part of this animal which contains the musk, and wear it as a perfume about

their persons. Travellers are not agreed in what part of the body these musk bags are contained; some say in the ears, some in the parts of generation; but the most probable opinion is, that this musky substance is amassed in the glands under the legs and arms. From whatsoever part of the body this odour proceeds, it is very strong and powerful, tincturing the flesh of the whole body with its taste and smell. The crocodile's flesh is at best very bad, tough eating; but unless the musk bags be separated, it is insupportable. The Negroes themselves cannot well digest the flesh; but then, a crocodile's egg is to them the most delicate morsel in the world. Even savages exhibit their epicures as well as we; and one of true taste will spare neither pains nor danger to furnish himself with his favourite repast. For this reason, he often watches the places where the female comes to lay her eggs, and upon her retiring seizes the booty.

All crocodiles breed near fresh waters; and though they are sometimes found in the sea, yet that may be considered rather as a place of excursion than abode. They produce their young by eggs, as was said above; and for this purpose the female, when she comes to lay, chooses a place by the side of a river, or some fresh water lake, to deposit her brood in. She always pitches upon an extensive sandy shore, where she may dig a hole without danger of detection from the ground being fresh turned up. The shore must also be gentle and shelving to the water, for the greater convenience of the animal's going and returning; and a convenient place must be found near the edge of the stream, that the young may have a shorter way to go. When all these requisites are adjusted, the animal is seen cautiously stealing upon shore to deposit her burden. The presence of a man, a beast, or even a bird, is sufficient

to deter her at that time; and if she perceives any creature looking on, she infallibly returns. If, however, nothing appears, she then goes to work, scratching up the sand with her fore-paws, and making a hole pretty deep in the shore. There she deposits from eighty to a hundred eggs, of the size of a tennis-ball, and of the same figure, covered with a tough white skin like parchment. She takes above an hour to perform this task; and then covering up the place so artfully that it can scarcely be perceived, she goes back, to return again the next day. Upon her return, with the same precaution as before she lays about the same number of eggs, and the day following also a like number. Thus having deposited her whole quantity, and having covered them close up in the sand, they are soon vivified by the heat of the sun, and at the end of thirty days the young ones begin to break open the shell. At this time the female is instinctively taught that her young ones want relief; and she goes upon land to scratch away the sand and set them free. Her brood quickly avail themselves of their liberty; a part run unguided to the water, another part ascend the back of the female, and are carried thither in greater safety. But the moment they arrive at the water, all natural connexion is at an end: when the female has introduced her young to their natural element, not only she, but the male, become among the number of their most formidable enemies, and devour as many of them as they can. The whole brood scatters into different parts at the bottom; by far the greatest number are destroyed, and the rest find safety in their agility or minuteness.

But it is not the crocodile alone that is thus found to thin their numbers; the eggs of this animal are not only a delicious feast to the savage, but are eagerly sought after by every beast and bird of prey.

The ichneumon was erected into a deity among the ancients for its success in destroying the eggs of these monsters; at present that species of the vulture called the Gallinazo is their most prevailing enemy. All along the banks of great rivers, for thousands of miles, the crocodile is seen to propagate in numbers that would soon overrun the earth, but for the vulture, that seems appointed by Providence to abridge its fecundity. These birds are ever found in greatest numbers where the crocodile is most numerous; and hiding themselves within the thick branches of the trees that shade the banks of the river, they watch the female in silence, and permit her to lay all her eggs without interruption. Then when she has retired, they encourage each other with cries to the spoil; and flocking all together upon the hidden treasure, tear up the eggs, and devour them in a much quicker time than they were deposited. Nor are they less diligent in attending the female while she is carrying her young to the water, for if any one of them happens to drop by the way, it is sure to receive no mercy.

Such is the extraordinary account given us by late travellers of the propagation of this animal; an account adopted by Linnæus and the most learned naturalists of the age.* Yet, if one might argue from the general analogy of nature, the crocodile's devouring her own young when she gets to the water seems doubtful. This may be a story raised from the general idea of this animal's rapacious cruelty; when, in fact, the crocodile only seems more cruel than other animals, because it has more power to do mischief. It is probable that it is no more divested of parental tenderness than other creatures; and I am the more led to think so from the peculiar formation of one of the crocodile kind. This is called the Open-bellied

* Ulloa.

Crocodile, and is furnished with a false belly like the opossum, where the young creep out and in as their dangers or necessities require. The crocodile thus furnished at least cannot be said to be an enemy to her own young, since she thus gives them more than parental protection.* It is probable also that this open-bellied crocodile is viviparous, and fosters her young that are prematurely excluded in this second womb, until they come to proper maturity.

How long the crocodile lives we are not certainly informed; if we may believe Aristotle, it lives the age of a man; but the ancients so much amused themselves in inventing fables concerning this animal, that even truth from them is suspicious. What we know for certain from the ancients is, that among the various animals that were produced to fight in the amphitheatre at Rome, the combat of the crocodile was not wanting.† Marcus Scaurus produced them living in his unrivalled exhibitions; and the Romans considered him as the best citizen, because he furnished them with the most expensive entertainments. But entertainment at that corrupt time was their only occupation.

CHAPTER VI.

OF THE SALAMANDER.

THE ancients have described a lizard that is bred from heat, that lives in the flames, and feeds upon

[* This statement respecting the open-bellied crocodile should be received with considerable hesitation, as many modern naturalists assert that none of them have any thing resembling a pouch for securing their young.]

† Plin. lib. viii, c. 26.

Figures 2. Hien 3. Salamander



fire as its proper nourishment. As they saw every other element, the air, the earth; and water, inhabited, fancy was set to work to find or make an inhabitant in fire, and thus to people every part of nature. It will be needless to say that there is no such animal existing; and that, of all others, the modern Salamander has the smallest affinity to such an abode.

Whether the animal that now goes by the name of the salamander be the same with that described by Pliny, is a doubt with me; but this is not a place for the discussion. It is sufficient to observe, that the modern salamander is an animal of the lizard kind; and under this name is comprehended a large tribe that all go by the same name. There have been not less than seven sorts of this animal described by Seba; and to have some idea of the peculiarity of their figure; if we suppose the tail of a lizard applied to the body of a frog, we shall not be far from precision. The common lizard is long, small, and taper; the salamander, like the frog, has its eyes towards the back of the head; like the frog, its snout is round and not pointed, and its belly thick and swoln. The claws of its toes are short and feeble; its skin rough; and the tongue, unlike that of the smallest of the lizard kind, in which it is long and forked, is short, and adhering to the under jaw.

But it is not in figure that this animal chiefly differs from the rest of the lizard tribe, for it seems to differ in nature and conformation. In nature it is unlike, being a heavy torpid animal, whereas the lizard tribe are active, restless, and ever in motion: in conformation it is unlike, as the salamander is produced alive from the body of its parent, and is completely formed the moment of its exclusion. It differs from them also in its general reputation of being venomous; however, no trials that have been hitherto made seem to confirm the truth of the report.

Not only this, but many others of the lizard tribe are said to have venom; but it were to be wished that mankind, for their own happiness, would examine into the foundation of this reproach. By that means many of them, that are now shunned and detested, might be found inoffensive; their figure, instead of exciting either horror or disgust, would then only tend to animate the general scene of nature, and speculation might examine their manners in confidence and security. Certain it is, that all of the lizard kind with which we are acquainted in this country are perfectly harmless; and it is equally true, that for a long time, till our prejudices were removed, we considered not only the Newt, but the Snake and the Blind Worm, as fraught with the most destructive poison. At present we have got over these prejudices; and it is probable, that if other nations made the same efforts for information, it would be found, that the malignity of most, if not all of the lizard tribe, was only in the imagination.

With respect to the Salamander, the whole tribe, from the Moron to the Gekko, are said to be venomous to the last degree; yet, when experiments have been tried, no arts, no provocations, could excite these animals to the rage of biting. They seem timid and inoffensive, only living upon worms and insects; quite destitute of fangs, like the viper; their teeth are so very small that they are hardly able to inflict a wound. But as the teeth are thus incapable of offending, the people of the countries where they are found have recourse to a venomous slaver, which they suppose issues from the animal's mouth: they also tell us of a venom issuing from the claws; even Linnæus seems to acknowledge the fact, but thinks it a probable supposition that this venom may proceed from their urine.

Of all animals, the Gekko is the most notorious for its powers of mischief; yet we are told, by those who load it with that calumny, that it is very friendly to man, and though supplied with the most deadly virulence, is yet never known to bite. It would be absurd in us, without experience, to pronounce upon the noxious or inoffensive qualities of animals; yet it is most probable, from an inspection of the teeth of lizards, and from their inoffensive qualities in Europe, that the gekko has been unjustly accused, and that its serpent-like figure has involved it in one common reproach with serpents.

The salamander best known in Europe is from eight to eleven inches long, usually black, spotted with yellow; and when taken in the hand feeling cold to a great degree. There are several kinds. Our Black Water Newt is reckoned among the number. The idle report of its being inconsumable in fire, has caused many of these poor animals to be burnt; but we cannot say as philosophical martyrs; since scarcely any philosopher could think it necessary to make the experiment. When thrown into the fire, the animal is seen to burst with the heat of its situation, and to eject its fluids. We are gravely told in the Philosophical Transactions, that this is a method the animal takes to extinguish the flames.

When examined internally, the salamander exhibits little difference from other animals of the lizard kind. It is furnished with lungs that sometimes serve for the offices of breathing; with a heart that has its communications open, so that the animal cannot easily be drowned. The ovary in the female is double the size of what it is in others of this tribe; and the male is furnished with four *testiculi* instead of two. But what deserves particular notice, is the manner of this animal's bringing forth its young

alive.* “The salamander,” says my author, “begins to show itself in spring, and chiefly during heavy rains. When the warm weather returns, it disappears; and never leaves its hole during either great heats or severe colds, both which it equally fears, When taken in the hand, it appears like a lump of ice; it consequently loves the shade, and is found at the feet of old trees surrounded with brush-wood at the bottom. It is fond of running along new-ploughed grounds, probably to seek for worms, which are its ordinary food. One of these,” continues my author, “I took alive some years ago in a ditch that had been lately made. I laid it at the foot of the stairs upon coming home, and there it disgorged from the throat a *worm* three inches long, that lived for an hour after, though wounded, as I suppose, by the teeth of the animal. I afterwards cut up another of these lizards, and saw not less than fifty young ones, resembling the parent, come from its womb, all alive, and actively running about the room.” It were to be wished the author had used another word beside that of *worm*; as we now are in doubt whether he means a real worm, or a young animal of the lizard species: had he been more explicit, and had it appeared that it was a real young lizard, which I take to be his meaning, we might here see a wonder of nature brought to the proof, which many have asserted, and many have thought proper to deny: I mean the refuge which the young of the shark, the lizard, and the viper kinds, are said to take, by running down the throat of the parent, and there finding a temporary security. The fact, indeed, seems a little extraordinary; and yet it is so frequently attested by some, and even believed by others, whose authority is respectable, among the

* Acta Hasniensia, ann. 1676. Observ. 11. Memoires de l'Academie Royale des Sciences, tom. iii, part 3, p. 80.

number of whom we find Mr. Pennant, that the argument of strangeness must give way to the weight of authority.

However this be, there is no doubt of the animal's being viviparous, and producing about fifty at a time. They come from the parent in full perfection, and quickly leave her to shift for themselves. These animals in the lower ranks of nature want scarcely any help when excluded; they soon complete the little circle of their education, and in a day or two are capable of practising all the arts of subsistence and evasion practised by their kind.

They are all amphibious, or at least are found capable of subsisting in either element, when placed there: if those taken from land are put into water, they continue there in seeming health; and on the contrary, those taken from the water will live upon land. In water, however, they exhibit a greater variety in their appearance; and what is equally wonderful with the rest of their history, during the whole spring and summer this water lizard changes its skin every fourth or fifth day, and during the winter every fifteen days. This operation they perform by means of the mouth and the claws; and it seems a work of no small difficulty and pain. The cast skins are frequently seen floating on the surface of the water: they are sometimes seen also with a part of their old skin still sticking to one of their limbs, which they have not been able to get rid of; and thus, like a man with a boot half drawn, in some measure crippled in their own spoils. This also often corrupts, and the leg drops off; but the animal does not seem to feel the want of it, for the loss of a limb to all the lizard kind is but a trifling calamity. They can live several hours even after the loss of their head; and for some time under dissection, all the parts of this animal seem to retain life; but the tail is the part

that longest retains its motion. Salt seems to be much more efficacious in destroying these animals than the knife; for, upon being sprinkled with it, the whole body emits a viscous liquor, and the lizard dies in three minutes, in great agonies.

The whole of the lizard kind are also tenacious of life in another respect, and the salamander among the number. They sustain the want of food in a surprising manner. One of them, brought from the Indies, lived nine months, without any other food than what it received from licking a piece of earth on which it was brought over;* another was kept by Seba in an empty vial for six months, without any nourishment; and Redi talks of a large one, brought from Africa, that lived for eight months without taking any nourishment whatever. Indeed, as many of this kind, both salamanders and lizards, are torpid or nearly so, during the winter, the loss of their appetite for so long a time is the less surprising.

CHAPTER VII.

OF THE CAMELEON, THE IGUANA, AND LIZARDS OF DIFFERENT KINDS.

It were to be wished that animals could be so classed, that by the very mentioning their rank, we should receive some insight into their history. This I have endeavoured in most instances; but in the present chapter all method is totally unserviceable. Here distribution gives no general ideas; for some of the animals to be here mentioned produce by eggs, some by spawn, and some are viviparous. The

* Phil. trans. ann. 1661, N 21, art. 7.

peculiar manner of propagating in each is very indistinctly known. The Iguana and the Cameleon, we know, bring forth eggs; some others also produce in the same manner: but of the rest, which naturalists make amount to above fifty, we have but very indistinct information.

In the former divisions of this tribe, we had to observe upon animals formidable from their size, or disgusting from their frog-like head and appearance; in the present division, all the animals are either beautiful to the eye, or grateful to the appetite. The lizards properly so called, are beautifully painted and mottled; their frolicsome agility is amusing to those who are familiar with their appearance; and the great affection which some of them show to man, should, in some measure, be repaid with kindness. Others, such as the Iguana, though not possessed of beauty are very serviceable, furnishing one of the most luxurious feasts the tropical climates can boast of. Those treated of before were objects of curiosity, because they were apparently objects of danger; most of these here mentioned have either use or beauty to engage us.

Directly descending from the crocodile, we find the Cordyle, the Tockay, and the Tejuguacu, all growing less in order, as I have named them. These fill up the chasm to be found between the crocodile and the African Iguana.

The Iguana, which deserves our notice, is about five feet long, and the body about as thick as one's thigh; the skin is covered with small scales, like those of a serpent; and the back is furnished with a row of prickles, that stand up like the teeth of a saw; the eyes seem to be but half opened, except when the animal is angry, and then they appear large and sparkling; both the jaws are full of very

sharp teeth, and the bite is dangerous, though not venomous, for it never lets loose till it is killed. The male has a skin hanging under his throat, which reaches down to his breast; and when displeased he puffs it up like a bladder: he is one-third larger and stronger than the female, though the strength of either avails them little towards their defence. The males are ash-coloured, and the females are green.

The flesh of these may be considered as the greatest delicacy of Africa and America; and the sportsmen of those climates go out to hunt the iguana as we do in pursuit of the pheasant or the hare. In the beginning of the season, when the great floods of the tropical climates are passed away, and vegetation starts into universal verdure, the sportsmen are seen with a noose and a stick wandering along the sides of the rivers to take the iguana. This animal, though apparently formed for combat, is the most harmless creature of all the forest; it lives among the trees, or sports in the water, without ever offering to offend: there, having fed upon the flowers of the mahot, and the leaves of the mapou, that grow along the banks of the stream, it goes to repose upon the branches of the trees that hang over the water. Upon land the animal is swift of foot; but when once in possession of a tree, it seems conscious of the security of its situation, and never offers to stir. There the sportsman easily finds it, and as easily fastens his noose round its neck; if the head be placed in such a manner that the noose cannot readily be fastened, by hitting the animal a blow on the nose with the stick, it lifts the head, and offers it in some degree to the noose. In this manner, and also by the tail, the iguana is dragged from the trees, and killed by repeated blows on the head.

The Cameleon is a very different animal; and as the iguana satisfies the appetites of the epicure, this

is rather the feast of the philosopher. Like the crocodile, this little animal proceeds from an egg, and it also nearly resembles that formidable creature in form; but it differs widely in its size and its appetites, being not above eleven inches long, and delighting to sit upon trees, being afraid of serpents, from which it is unable to escape on the ground.

The head of a large cameleon is almost two inches long, and from thence to the beginning of the tail four and a half; the tail is five inches long, and the feet two and a half; the thickness of the body is different at different times, for sometimes from the back to the belly it is two inches, and sometimes but one; for it can blow itself up and contract itself at pleasure. This swelling and contraction is not only of the back and belly, but of the legs and tail.

Those different tumours do not proceed from a dilatation of the breast in breathing, which rises and falls by turns, but are very regular, and seem adopted merely from caprice. The cameleon is often seen, as it were, blown up for two hours together, and then it continues growing less and less insensibly, for the dilatation is always more quick and visible than the contraction. In this last state the animal appears extremely lean, the spine of the back seems sharp, and all the ribs may be counted; likewise the tendons of the legs and arms may be seen very distinctly.

This method of puffing itself up is similar to that in pigeons, whose crops are sometimes greatly distended with air. The cameleon has a power of driving the air it breathes over every part of the body; however, it only gets between the skin and the muscles, for the muscles themselves are never swollen. The skin is very cold to the touch; and though the animal seems so lean, there is no feeling the beating of the heart. The surface of the skin is unequal,

and has a grain not unlike shagreen, but very soft, because each eminence is as smooth as if it were polished. Some of these little protuberances are as large as a pin's head on the arms, legs, belly, and tail; but on the shoulders and head they are of an oval figure, and a little larger; those under the throat are ranged in the form of a chaplet, from the lower lip to the breast. The colour of all these eminences, when the cameleon is at rest in a shady place, is of a bluish-gray, and the space between is of a pale red and yellow.

But when the animal is removed into the sun, then comes the wonderful part of its history. At first it appears to suffer no change of colour, its grayish spots still continuing the same; but the whole surface soon seems to imbibe the rays of light, and the simple colouring of the body changes into a variety of beautiful hues. Wherever the light comes upon the body, it is of a tawny brown; but that part of the skin on which the sun does not shine, changes into several brighter colours, pale yellow, or vivid crimson, which form spots of the size of half one's finger: some of these descend from the spine half way down the back, and others appear on the sides, arms, and tail. When the sun has done shining, the original gray colour returns by degrees, and covers all the body. Sometimes the animal becomes all over spotted with brown spots of a greenish cast. When it is wrapped up in a white linen cloth for two or three minutes, the natural colour becomes much lighter, but not quite white, as some authors have pretended: however, from hence it must not be concluded, that the cameleon assumes the colour of the objects which it approaches; this is entirely an error, and probably has taken its rise from the continual changes it appears to undergo.

Le Bruyn, in his *Voyage to the Levant*, has given

us a very ample description of the cameleon. During his stay at Smyrna he bought several of this kind; and, to try how long they could live, kept four of them in a cage, permitting them at times to run about the house. The fresh sea breeze seemed to give them most spirits and vivacity; they opened their mouths to take it in: he never perceived that they eat anything, except now and then a fly which they took half an hour to swallow: he observed their colour often to change, three or four times successively, without being able to find out any cause for such alterations, their common colour he found to be gray, or rather a pale mouse colour; but its most frequent changes were into a beautiful green spotted with yellow: sometimes the animal was marked all over with a dark brown, and this often changed into a lighter brown: some colours, however, it never assumed, and contrary to what was said above, he found red to be among the number.

Though our traveller took the utmost care, he was unable to preserve any of them alive above five months, and many of them died in four. When the cameleon changes place, and attempts to descend from an eminence, it moves with the utmost precaution, advancing one leg very deliberately before the other, still securing itself by holding whatever it can grasp by the tail. It seldom opens its mouth, except for fresh air; and when that is supplied, discovers its satisfaction by its motions, and the frequent changes of its colour. The tongue is sometimes darted out after its prey, which is flies; and this is as long as the whole body.* The eyes are remarkably little,

[* The tongue of the cameleon, says Linnæus, resembles an earth-worm, and is enlarged and somewhat flattened at the end. From this member there continually oozes out a very glutinous liquor, by means of which it catches such insects as come within its reach, and it is surprising to see with what quickness it retracts its tongue the instant it has arrested any prey.]

though they stand out of the head; they have a single eye-lid, like a cap with a hole in the middle, through which the sight of the eye appears, which is of a shining brown, and round it there is a little circle of a gold colour: but the most extraordinary part of their conformation is, that the animal often moves one eye when the other is entirely at rest; nay, sometimes one eye will seem to look directly forward, while the other looks backward; and one will look upward, while the other regards the earth.

To this class of lizards we may refer the Dragon, a most terrible animal, but most probably not of nature's formation. Of this death-dealing creature all people have read; and the most barbarous countries, to this day, paint it to the imagination in all its terrors, and fear to meet it in every forest. It is not enough that nature has furnished those countries with poisons of various malignity; with serpents forty feet long; with elephants, lions, and tigers: to make their situation really dangerous, the capricious imagination is set at work to call up new terrors; and scarcely a savage is found, that does not talk of winged serpents of immoderate length, flying away with the camel or the rhinoceros, or destroying mankind by a single glare.* Happily, however, such ravagers are no where found to exist at present; and the whole race of dragons is dwindled down to the flying Lizard, a little harmless creature, that only preys upon insects, and even seems to embellish the forest with its beauty.

The flying Lizard of Java perches upon fruit trees, and feeds upon flies, ants, butterflies, and other small insects. It is a very harmless creature, and does no

[* The Basilisk has a long cylindric tail, a radiated fin on the back, and a crest on the head, inclining backwards. This animal, so dreadful to the imagination of the ancients, that they considered its very breath and aspect as fatal, we now know to be quite inoffensive, feeding entirely on insects. It is found in the East Indies and in South America.]

mischievous in any respect. Gentil, in his Voyage round the World, affirms that he has seen these lizards at the island of Java, in the East Indies. He observed they flew very swiftly from tree to tree; and having killed one, he could not but admire the skin, which was painted with several beautiful colours: it was a foot in length, and had four paws like the common lizard; but its head was flat, and had a small hole in the middle; the wings were very thin, and resembled those of a flying-fish. About the neck were a sort of wattles, not unlike those of cocks, which gave it no disagreeable appearance. He intended to have preserved it, in order to bring it into Europe; but it was corrupted by the heat, before the close of the day: however, they have since been brought into England, and are now common enough in the cabinets of the curious.

The last animal of the lizard kind that I shall mention, is the Chalcidian Lizard of Aldrovandus, very improperly called the Seps by modern historians. This animal seems to make the shade that separates the lizard from the serpent race. It has four legs, like the lizard; but so short, as to be utterly unserviceable in walking: it has a long slender body, like the serpent; and it is said to have the serpent's malignity also. The fore-legs are very near the head, the hind-legs are placed far backward; but before and behind they seem rather useless encumbrances, than instruments serving to assist the animal in its motions, or in providing for its subsistence. These animals are found above three feet long, and thick in proportion, with a large head and pointed snout. The whole body is covered with scales; and the belly is white, mixed with blue. It has four crooked teeth; as also a pointed tail, which, however, can inflict no wound. Whether the teeth be similar to the viper's fangs, we are not told, though Volteranus

says they are covered with a membrane; by which I am apt to think he means a venom-bag, which is found at the root of the teeth of all serpents that are poisonous. It is viviparous, fifteen young ones having been taken alive out of its belly. Upon the whole, it appears to bear a strong affinity to the viper, and, like that animal, its bite may be dangerous.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF SERPENTS IN GENERAL.

WE now come to a tribe that not only their deformity, their venom, their ready malignity, but also our prejudices, and our very religion, have taught us to detest. The serpent has from the beginning been the enemy of man; and it has hitherto continued to terrify and annoy him, notwithstanding all the arts that have been practised to destroy it. Formidable in itself, it deters the invader from the pursuit; and from its figure capable of finding shelter in a little space, it is not easily discovered by those who would venture to try the encounter. Thus possessed at once of potent arms and inaccessible or secure retreats, it baffles all the arts of man, though never so earnestly bent upon its destruction.

For this reason there is scarcely a country in the world that does not still give birth to this poisonous brood, that seem formed to quell human pride, and repress the boast of security. Mankind have driven the lion, the tiger, and the wolf from their vicinity: but the snake and the viper still defy their power, and frequently punish their insolence.

Their numbers, however, are thinned by human assiduity; and it is possible some of the kinds are

wholly destroyed. In none of the countries of Europe are they sufficiently numerous to be truly terrible: the philosopher can meditate in the fields without danger, and the lover seek the grove without fearing any wounds but those of metaphor. The various malignity that has been ascribed to European serpents of old, is now utterly unknown; there are not above three or four kinds that are dangerous, and their poison operates in all in the same manner. A burning pain in the part, easily removeable by timely applications, is the worst effect that we experience from the bite of the most venomous serpents of Europe. The drowsy death, the starting of the blood from every pore, the insatiable and burning thirst, the melting down the solid mass of the whole form into one heap of putrefaction,—these are horrors with which we are entirely unacquainted.

But though we have thus reduced these dangers, having been incapable of wholly removing them, in other parts of the world they still rage with all their ancient malignity. Nature seems to have placed them as sentinels to deter mankind from spreading too widely, and from seeking new abodes till they have thoroughly cultivated those at home. In the warm countries that lie within the tropic, as well as in the cold regions of the north, where the inhabitants are few, the serpents propagate in equal proportion. But of all countries those regions have them in the greatest abundance where the fields are unpeopled and fertile, and where the climate supplies warmth and humidity. All along the swampy banks of the river Niger or Oroonoko, where the sun is hot, the forests thick, and the men but few, the serpents cling among the branches of the trees in infinite numbers, and carry on an unceasing war against all other animals in their vicinity. Travellers have assured us that they have often seen large snakes twining round

the trunk of a tall tree, encompassing it like a wreath, and thus rising and descending at pleasure. In these countries, therefore, the serpent is too formidable to become an object of curiosity, for it excites much more violent sensations.

We are not therefore to reject, as wholly fabulous, the accounts left us by the ancients of the terrible devastations committed by a single serpent. It is probable, in early times, when the arts were little known, and mankind were but thinly scattered over the earth, that serpents, continuing undisturbed possessors of the forest, grew to an amazing magnitude, and every other tribe of animals fell before them. It then might have happened, that serpents reigned the tyrants of a district for centuries together. To animals of this kind, grown by time and rapacity to a hundred or a hundred and fifty feet in length, the lion, the tiger, and even the elephant itself, were but feeble opponents. The dreadful monster spread desolation round him; every creature that had life was devoured, or fled to a distance. That horrible *factor*, which even the commonest and the most harmless snakes are still found to diffuse, might, in these larger ones, become too powerful for any living being to withstand; and while they preyed without distinction, they might thus also have poisoned the atmosphere around them. In this manner having for ages lived in the hidden and unpeopled forest, and finding, as their appetites were more powerful, the quantity of their prey decreasing, it is possible they might venture boldly from their retreats, into the more cultivated parts of the country, and carry consternation among mankind, as they had before desolation among the lower ranks of nature. We have many histories of antiquity presenting us such a picture, and exhibiting a whole nation sinking under the ravages of a single serpent, At that time, man had not learned the art of uniting

the efforts of many, to effect one great purpose. Opposing multitudes only added new victims to the general calamity, and increased mutual embarrassment and terror. The animal was therefore to be singly opposed by him who had the greatest strength, the best armour, and the most undaunted courage. In such an encounter hundreds must have fallen, till one, more lucky than the rest, by a fortunate blow, or by taking the monster in its torpid interval, and surcharged with spoil, might kill, and thus rid his country of the destroyer. Such was the original occupation of heroes; and those who first obtained that name, from their destroying the ravagers of the earth, gained it much more deservedly than their successors, who acquired their reputation only for their skill in destroying each other. But as we descend into more enlightened antiquity, we find these animals less formidable, as being attacked in a more successful manner. We are told, that while Regulus led his army along the banks of the river Bagrada in Africa, an enormous serpent disputed his passage over. We are assured by Pliny, who says that he himself saw the skin, that it was a hundred and twenty feet long, and that it had destroyed many of the army. At last, however, the battering engines were brought out against it; and these assailing it at a distance, it was soon destroyed. Its spoils were carried to Rome, and the general was decreed an ovation for his success. There are, perhaps, few facts better ascertained in history than this: an ovation was a remarkable honour, and was given only for some signal exploit, that did not deserve a triumph. No historian would offer to invent that part of the story at least, without being subject to the most shameful detection. The skin was kept for several years after in the capitol, and Pliny says he saw it there: now, though Pliny was a credulous

writer, he was by no means a *false* one; and whatever he says he has seen, we may very safely rely on. At present, indeed, such ravages from serpents are scarce seen in any part of the world; not but that, in Africa and America, some of them are powerful enough to brave the assaults of men to this day.

But happily for us, we are placed at such a distance as to take a view of this tribe, without fearing for our safety; we can survey their impotent malignity with the same delight with which the poet describes the terrors of a dead monster:

*Nequeant expleri corda tuendo
Terribles oculos villosaque setis pectore.*

To us their slender form, their undulating motion, their vivid colouring, their horrid stench, their forked tongue, and their envenomed fangs, are totally harmless; and in this country their uses even serve to counterbalance the mischief they sometimes occasion.

If we take a survey of serpents in general, they have marks by which they are distinguished from all the rest of animated nature. They have the length and the suppleness of the eel, but want fins to swim with; they have the scaly covering and pointed tail of the lizard, but they want legs to walk with; they have the crawling motion of the worm, but, unlike that animal, they have lungs to breathe with: like all the reptile kind, they are resentful when offended; and nature has supplied them with terrible arms to revenge every injury.

Though they are possessed of very different degrees of malignity, yet they are all formidable to man, and have a strong similitude of form to each other; and it will be proper to mark the general characters before we descend to particulars. With respect to their conformation, all serpents have a

very wide mouth, in proportion to the size of the head; and what is very extraordinary, they can gape and swallow the head of another animal which is three times as big as their own. I have seen a toad taken out of the belly of a snake, at lord Spencer's, near London, the body of which was thrice the diameter of the animal that swallowed it. However, it is no way surprising that the skin of the snake should stretch to receive so large a morsel; the wonder seems how the jaws could take it in. To explain this, it must be observed, that the jaws of this animal do not open as ours in the manner of a pair of hinges, where bones are applied to bones, and play upon one another; on the contrary, the serpent's jaws are held together at the roots by a stretching muscular skin; by which means they open as widely as the animal chooses to stretch them; and admit of a prey much thicker than the snake's own body. The throat, like stretching leather, dilates to admit the morsel; the stomach receives it in part; and the rest remains in the gullet, till putrefaction and the juices of the serpent's body unite to dissolve it.

As to the teeth, I will talk more of them when I come to treat of the viper's poison: it will be sufficient here to observe, that some serpents have fang's or canine teeth, and others are without them. The teeth in all are crooked and hollow, and, by a peculiar contrivance, are capable of being erected or depressed at pleasure.

The eyes of all serpents are small, if compared to the length of the body; and though differently coloured in different kinds, yet the appearance of all is malign and heavy; and from their known qualities, they strike the imagination with the idea of a creature meditating mischief. In some, the upper eyelid is wanting, and the serpent winks only with that

below; in others, the animal has a nictitating membrane or skin, resembling that which is found in birds, which keeps the eye clean and preserves the sight. The substance of the eye in all is hard and horny, the crystalline humour occupying a great part of the globe.

The holes for hearing are very visible in all, but there are no conduits for smelling, though it is probable that some of them enjoy that sense in tolerable perfection.

The tongue in all these animals is long and forky. It is composed of two long fleshy substances, which terminate in sharp points, and are very pliable. At the root it is connected very strongly to the neck by two tendons, that give it a variety of play. Some of the viper kind have tongues a fifth part of the length of their bodies; they are continually darting them out, but they are entirely harmless, and only terrify those who are ignorant of the real situation of their poison.

If from the jaws we go on to the gullet, we shall find it very wide for the animal's size, and capable of being distended to a great degree; at the bottom of this lies the stomach, which is not so capacious, and receives only a part of the prey, while the rest continues in the gullet for digestion. When the substance in the stomach is dissolved into chyle, it passes into the intestines, and from thence goes to nourishment, or to be excluded by the vent.

Like most other animals serpents are furnished with lungs, which I suppose are serviceable in breathing, though we cannot perceive the manner in which this operation is performed; for though serpents are often seen apparently to draw in their breath, yet we cannot find the smallest signs of their ever respiring it again. Their lungs however are long and large, and doubtless are necessary to pro-

mote their languid circulation. The heart is formed as in the tortoise, the frog, and the lizard kinds, so as to work without the assistance of the lungs. It is single, the greatest part of the blood flowing from the great vein to the great artery by the shortest course. By this contrivance of nature we easily gather two consequences; that snakes are amphibious, being equally capable of living on land and in the water; and that also they are torpid in winter, like the bat, the lizard, and other animals formed in the same manner.

The vent in these animals serves for the emission of the urine and the fæces, and for the purposes of generation. The instrument of generation in the male is double, being forked like the tongue; the ovaries in the female are double also; and the aperture is very large in order to receive the double instrument of the male. They copulate in their retreats; and it is said by the ancients, that in this situation, they appear like one serpent with two heads: but how far this remark is founded in truth, I do not find any of the moderns that can resolve me.

As the body of this animal is long, slender, and capable of bending in every direction, the number of joints in the back bone are numerous beyond what one would imagine. In the generality of quadrupeds, they amount to not above thirty or forty; in the serpent kind they amount to a hundred and forty-five from the head to the vent, and twenty-five more from that to the tail.* The number of these joints must give the back-bone a surprising degree of pliancy; but this is still increased by the manner in which each of these joints are locked into the other. In man and quadrupeds, the flat surfaces of the bones are laid one against the other, and bound tight by sinews; but in serpents the bones play one within

* Vide Charat. Anatom.

the other, like ball and socket, so that they have full motion upon each other in every direction.* Thus, if a man were to form a machine composed of so many joints as are found in the back of a serpent, he would find it no easy matter to give it such strength and pliancy at the same time. The chain of a watch is but a bungling piece of workmanship in comparison.

Though the number of joints in the back-bone is great, yet that of the ribs is still greater; for, from the head to the vent, there are two ribs to every joint, which makes their number two hundred and ninety in all. These ribs are furnished with muscles, four in number, which being inserted into the head, run along to the end of the tail, and give the animal great strength and agility in all its motions.

The skin also contributes to its motions, being composed of a number of scales, united to each other by a transparent membrane, which grows harder as it grows older, until the animal changes, which is generally done twice a-year. This cover then bursts near the head, and the serpent creeps from it, by an undulatory motion, in a new skin much more vivid than the former. If the old slough be then viewed, every scale will be distinctly seen, like a piece of net-work, and will be found greatest where the part of the body they covered was largest.

There is much geometrical neatness in the disposal of the serpent's scales for assisting the animal's sinuous motion. As the edges of the foremost scales lie over the ends of their following scales, so those edges, when the scales are erected, which the animal has a power of doing in a small degree, catch in the ground, like the nails in the wheel of a chariot, and so promote and facilitate the animal's progressive motion. The erecting these scales is by means of a

* Derham, p. 396.

multitude of distinct muscles, with which each is supplied, and one end of which is tacked each to the middle of the foregoing.

In some of the serpent kind there is the exactest symmetry in these scales, in others they are disposed more irregularly. In some there are larger scales on the belly, and often answering to the number of ribs; in others, however, the animal is without them. Upon this slight difference Linnæus has founded his distinctions of the various classes of the serpent tribe. Human curiosity, however, and even human interest, seem to plead for a very different method of distribution. It is not the number of scales on a formidable animal's belly, nor their magnitude or variety, that any way excite our concern. The first question that every man will naturally ask when he hears of a snake is, whether it be large? the second, whether it be venomous? In other words, the strongest lines in the animal's history are those that first excite our attention; and these it is every historian's business to display.

When we come to compare serpents with each other, the first great distinction appears in their size, no other tribe of animals differing so widely in this particular. What, for instance, can be so remotely separated as the Great Liboya of Surinam, that grows to thirty-six feet long, and the Little Serpent at the Cape of Good Hope and the north of the river Senegal, that is not above three inches, and covers whole sandy deserts with its multitudes? This tribe of animals, like that of fishes, seems to have no bounds put to their growth: their bones are in a great measure cartilaginous, and they are consequently capable of great extension; the older, therefore, a serpent becomes, the larger it grows; and as they seem to live to a great age, they arrive at an enormous size.

Leguat assures us that he saw one in Java that

was fifty feet long. Carli mentions their growing to above forty feet; and we have now the skin of one in the Museum that measures thirty-two. Mr. Wentworth, who had large concerns in the Berbices in America, assures me, that in that country they grow to an enormous length. He one day sent out a soldier with an Indian to kill wild fowl for the table, and they accordingly went some miles from the fort: in pursuing their game, the Indian, who generally marched before, beginning to tire, went to rest himself upon the fallen trunk of a tree, as he supposed it to be; but when he was just going to sit down, the enormous monster began to move, and the poor savage perceiving that he had approached a Liboya, the greatest of all the serpent kind, dropped down in an agony. The soldier, who perceived at some distance what had happened, levelled at the serpent's head, and by a lucky aim shot it dead: however, he continued his fire until he was assured that the animal was killed; and then going up to rescue his companion, who was fallen motionless by its side, he, to his astonishment, found him dead likewise, being killed by the fright. Upon his return to the fort, and telling what had happened, Mr. Wentworth ordered the animal to be brought up, when it was measured, and found to be thirty-six feet long. He had the skin stuffed, and then sent to Europe as a present to the Prince of Orange, in whose cabinet it is now to be seen at the Hague; but the skin has shrunk by drying two or three feet.

In the East Indies they grow also to an enormous size, particularly in the Island of Java, where we are assured that one of them will destroy and devour a buffalo. In a letter printed in the German *Ephemerides*, we have an account of a combat between an enormous serpent and a buffalo, by a person who assures us that he was himself a spectator. The

serpent had for some time been waiting near the brink of a pool in expectation of its prey, when a buffalo was the first that offered. Having darted upon the affrighted animal, it instantly began to wrap it round with its voluminous twistings, and at every twist the bones of the buffalo were heard to crack almost as loud as the report of a cannon. It was in vain that the poor animal struggled and bellowed, its enormous enemy entwined it too closely to get free; till at length, all its bones being mashed to pieces, like those of a malefactor on the wheel, and the whole body reduced to one uniform mass, the serpent untwined its folds to swallow its prey at leisure. To prepare for this, and in order to make the body slip down the throat more glibly, it was seen to lick the whole body over, and thus cover it with its mucus. It then began to swallow it at that end that offered least resistance, while its length of body was dilated to receive its prey, and thus took in at once a morsel that was three times its own thickness. We are assured by travellers, that these animals are often found with the body of a stag in their gullet, while the horns, which they are unable to swallow, keep sticking out at their mouths.

But it is happy for mankind that the rapacity of these frightful creatures is often their punishment; for whenever any of the serpent kind have gorged themselves in this manner, whenever their body is seen particularly distended with food, they then become torpid, and may be approached and destroyed with safety. Patient of hunger to a surprising degree, whenever they seize and swallow their prey, they seem like surfeited gluttons, unwieldy, stupid, helpless, and sleepy: they at that time seek some retreat, where they may lurk for several days together, and digest their meal in safety: the smallest effort at that time is capable of destroying them; they can

scarcely make any resistance, and they are equally unqualified for flight or opposition. That is the happy opportunity of attacking them with success: at that time the naked Indian himself does not fear to assail them. But it is otherwise when this sleepy interval of digestion is over; they then issue with famished appetites from their retreats, and with accumulated terrors, while every animal of the forest flies before them.

Carli describes the Long Serpent of Congo making its track through the tall grass, like mowers in a summer's day. He could not without terror behold whole lines of grass lying levelled under the sweep of its tail. In this manner it moved forward with great rapidity, until it found a proper situation frequented by its prey: there it continued to lurk in patient expectation, and would have remained for weeks together, had it not been disturbed by the natives.

Other creatures have a choice in their provision, but the serpent indiscriminately preys upon all, the buffalo, the tiger, and the gazelle. One would think the porcupine's quills might be sufficient to protect it; but whatever has life serves to appease the hunger of these devouring creatures; porcupines, with all their quills, have frequently been found in their stomachs when killed and opened; nay, they most frequently are seen to devour each other.

A life of savage hostility in the forest, offers the imagination one of the most tremendous pictures in nature. In those burning countries where the sun dries up every brook for hundreds of miles round, when what had the appearance of a great river in the rainy season, becomes, in summer, one dreary bed of sand; in those countries, I say, a lake that is never dry, or a brook that is perennial, is considered by every animal as the greatest convenience of na-

ture. As to food, the luxuriant landscape supplies that in sufficient abundance; it is the want of water that all animals endeavour to remove, and, inwardly parched by the heat of the climate, traverse whole deserts to find out a spring. When they have discovered this, no dangers can deter them from attempting to slake their thirst. Thus the neighbourhood of a rivulet, in the heart of the tropical continents, is generally the place where all the hostile tribes of nature draw up for the engagement. On the banks of this little envied spot, thousands of animals of various kinds are seen venturing to quench their thirst, or preparing to seize their prey. The elephants are perceived in a long line, marching from the darker parts of the forest; the buffaloes are there, depending upon numbers for security; the gazelles, relying solely upon their swiftness; the lion and tiger waiting a proper opportunity to seize; but chiefly the larger serpents are upon guard there, and defend the accesses of the lake. Not an hour passes without some dreadful combat; but the serpent, defended by its scales, and naturally capable of sustaining a multitude of wounds, is, of all others, the most formidable. It is the most wakeful also; for the whole tribe sleep with their eyes open, and are consequently for ever upon the watch: so that, till their rapacity is satisfied, few other animals will venture to approach their station.

But though these animals are, of all others, the most voracious, and though the morsel which they swallow, without chewing, is greater than what any other creature, either by land or water, the whale itself not excepted, can devour, yet no animals upon earth bear abstinence so long as they. A single meal, with many of the snake kind, seems to be the adventure of a season; it is an occurrence of which they have been for weeks, nay sometimes for months,

in patient expectation. When they have seized their prey, their industry for several weeks is entirely discontinued; the fortunate capture of an hour often satisfies them for the remaining period of their annual activity. As their blood is colder than that of most other terrestrial animals, and as it circulates but slowly through their bodies, so their powers of digestion are but feeble. Their prey continues, for a long time, partly in the stomach, partly in the gullet, and a part is often seen hanging out of the mouth. In this manner it digests by degrees; and in proportion as the part below is dissolved, the part above is taken in. It is not therefore till this tedious operation is entirely performed, that the serpent renews its appetite and its activity. But should any accident prevent it from issuing once more from its cell, it still can continue to bear famine for weeks, months, nay for years together. Vipers are often kept in boxes for six or eight months without any food whatever; and there are little serpents sometimes sent over to Europe, from Grand Cairo, the name of which I have not been able to learn, that live for several years in glasses, and never eat at all, nor even stain the glass with their excrements. Thus the serpent tribe unite in themselves two very opposite qualities,—wonderful abstinence, and yet incredible rapacity.

If, leaving the consideration of their appetites, we come to compare serpents as to their voices, some are found silent, some have a peculiar cry; but hissing is the sound which they most commonly send forth, either as a call to their kind, or as a threat to their enemies. In the countries where they abound, they are generally silent in the middle of the day, when they are obliged to retire from the heat of the climate; but as the cool of the evening approaches, they are then heard issuing from their cells, with

continued hissings; and such is the variety of their notes, that some have assured me they very much resemble the music of an English grove. This some will hardly credit: at any rate, such notes, however pleasing, can give but very little delight, when we call to mind the malignity of the minstrel. If considered, indeed, as they answer the animal's own occasions, they will be found well adapted to its nature, and fully answering the purposes of terrifying such as would venture to offend it.

With respect to motion, some serpents, particularly those of the viper kind, move slowly, while others, such as the Ammodytes, dart with amazing swiftness. The motion in all is similar; but the strength of body in some gives a very different appearance. The viper, that is but a slow feeble-bodied animal, makes way in a heavy undulating manner; advancing its head, then drawing up its tail behind, and bending the body into a bow; then from the spot where the head and tail were united, advancing the head forward as before. This, which is the motion of all serpents, is very different from that of the earth-worm, or the naked snail. The serpent, as was said above, has a back-bone, with numerous joints; and this bone the animal has a power of bending in every direction, but without being able to shorten or lengthen it at pleasure. The earth-worm, on the other hand, has no back-bone; but its body is composed of rings, which, like a barber's puff, it can lengthen or shorten as it finds necessary. The earth-worm, therefore, in order to move forward, lengthens the body; then, by the fore-part clings to the ground where it has reached, and then contracts and brings up its rear; then when the body is thus shortened, the fore-part is lengthened again for another progression; and so on. The serpent, instead of shortening the body, bends it into an

arch; and this is the principal difference between serpentine and vermicular progression.

I have instanced this motion in the viper, as most easily discerned; but there are many serpents that dart with such amazing swiftness that they appear rather to leap than crawl. It is most probable, however, that no serpent can dart upon even ground farther than its own length at one effort. Our fears, indeed, may increase the force of their speed, which is sometimes found so fatal. We are told by some, that they will dart to a very great distance; but this my inquiries have never been able to ascertain. The manner of progression in the swiftest serpent we know, which is the *Jaculus*, is by instantly coiling itself upon its tail, and darting from thence to its full extent; then carrying the tail as quick as lightning to the head, coiling and darting again; and by this means proceeding with extreme rapidity, without ever quitting the ground. Indeed, if we consider the length and the weakness of the back-bone in all these animals; if we regard the make of their vertebræ, in which we shall find the junctures all formed to give play, and none to give power, we cannot be of opinion that they have a faculty of springing from the ground, as they entirely want a *fulcrum*, if I may so express it, from whence to take their spring; the whole body being composed of unsupported muscles and joints that are yielding. It must be confessed, that they dart down from trees upon their prey; but their weight alone is sufficient for that purpose, without much effort of their own.

Though all serpents are amphibious, some are much fonder of the water than others; and though destitute of fins or gills, remain at the bottom, or swim along the surface with great ease. From their internal structure, just sketched above, we see how well adapted they are for either element, and how capa-

ble their blood is of circulating at the bottom, as freely as in the frog or the tortoise. They can, however, endure to live in fresh water only; for salt is an effectual bane to the whole tribe. The greatest serpents are most usually found in fresh water, either choosing it as their favourite element, or finding their prey in such places in the greatest abundance. But that all will live and swim in liquids, appears from the experiment of Redi, who put a serpent into a large glass vessel of wine, where it lived swimming about six hours; though, when it was by force immersed and kept under that liquid, it lived only one hour and a half. He put another in common water, where it lived three days; but when it was kept under water, it lived only about twelve hours.* Their motion there, however, is perfectly the reverse of what it is upon land; for in order to support themselves upon an element lighter than their bodies, they are obliged to increase their surface in a very artificial manner. On earth their windings are perpendicular to the surface; in water they are parallel to it: in other words, if I should wave my hand up and down, it will give an idea of the animal's progress on land; if I should wave it to the right and left, it will give some idea of its progress on the water.

Some serpents have a most horrible foetor attending them, which is alone capable of intimidating the brave. This proceeds from two glands near the vent, like those in the weasel or polecat; and, like those animals, in proportion as they are excited by rage or by fear, the scent grows stronger. It would seem, however that such serpents as are most venomous, are least offensive in this particular; since the rattle-snake and the viper have no smell whatever; nay, we are told, that at Calecut and Cranganon, in

* Redi, Exper. p. 170.

with a membranous skin, by which also they were united to each other. Each of these eggs contained from thirteen or fifteen young ones, about six inches long, and as thick as a goose-quill. Though the female from whence they were taken was spotted, the young seemed to have a variety of colours, very different from the parent; and this led the traveller to suppose that the colour was no characteristic mark among serpents. These little mischievous animals were no sooner let loose from the shell, than they crept about, and put themselves into a threatening posture, coiling themselves up, and biting the stick with which he was destroying them. In this manner he killed seventy-four young ones, those that were contained in one of the eggs escaped at the place where the female was killed by the bursting of the egg, and their getting among the bushes.

The last distinction that I shall mention, but the most material among serpents, is, that some are venomous and some inoffensive. If we consider the poison of serpents as it relates to man, there is no doubt but that it is a scourge and an affliction. The various calamities that the poison of serpents is capable of producing, are not only inflicted by the animal itself, but by men, more mischievous than even serpents, who prepare their venom to destroy each other. With this the savages poison their arms, and also prepare their revengeful potions. The ancients were known to preserve it for the purposes of suicide; and even among semi-barbarous countries at this day, the venom of snakes is used as a philtre.

But, though the poison be justly terrible to us, it has been given to very good purposes for the animal's own proper support and defence. Without this, serpents, of all other animals, would be the most exposed and defenceless;—without feet for

came to his relief, and seized the assailant with great courage. The serpent entwined him, and pressed him so violently that the blood came out of his mouth, and yet the dog never ceased till he had tore it to pieces. The dog was not sensible of his wounds during the fight; but soon after, his head swelled prodigiously, and he lay on the ground as dead. But his master having found hard by a banana tree, he applied its juice, mixed with treacle, to the wounds, which recovered the dog, and quickly healed his sores.

But it is in man that these venomous creatures find the most dangerous enemy. The Psylli of old were famous for charming and destroying serpents. Some moderns pretend to the same art. Cassaubon says, that he knew a man who could at any time summon a hundred serpents together, and draw them into the fire. Upon a certain occasion, when one of them bigger than the rest would not be brought in, he only repeated his charm, and it came forward, like the rest, to submit to the flames. Philostratus describes particularly how the Indians charm serpents. "They take a scarlet robe embroidered with golden letters, and spread it before a serpent's hole. The golden letters have a fascinating power; and, by looking steadfastly, the serpent's eyes are overcome and laid asleep." These and many other feats have been often practised upon these animals by artful men, who had first prepared the serpents for their exercise, and then exhibited them as adventitiously assembled at their call. In India there is nothing so common as dancing serpents, which are carried about in a broad flat vessel, somewhat resembling a seive. These erect and put themselves in motion at the word of command. When their keeper sings a slow tune, they seem by their heads to keep time; when he sings a quicker measure, they

appear to move more brisk and lively. All animals have a certain degree of docility; and we find that serpents themselves can be brought to move and approach at the voice of their master. From this trick successfully practised before the ignorant, it is most probable has arisen all the boasted pretensions which some have made to charming of serpents; an art to which the native Americans pretend at this very day. One of Linnæus's pupils, we are told, purchased the secret from an Indian, and then discovered it to his master; but, like all secrets of the kind, it is probable this ended in a few unmeaning words of no efficacy.

Though the generality of mankind regard this formidable race with horror, yet there have been some nations, and there are some at this day, that consider them with veneration and regard. The adoration paid by the ancient Egyptians to a serpent is well known; many of the nations at present along the western coast of Africa retain the same unaccountable veneration. Upon the Gold and Slave Coasts, a stranger, upon entering the cottages of the natives, is often surprised to see the roof swarming with serpents, that cling there without molesting, and unmolested by the natives. But his surprise will increase upon going farther southward to the kingdom of Widah, when he finds that a serpent is the god of the country. This animal, which travellers describe as a huge overgrown creature, has its habitation, its temple, and its priests. These impress the vulgar with an opinion of its virtues; and numbers are daily seen to offer, not only their goods, their provisions, and their prayers, at the shrine of their hideous deity, but also their wives and daughters. These the priests readily accept of, and after some days of penance, return them to their suppliants, much benefited by the serpent's supposed

embraces. Such a complicated picture of ignorance and imposture gives no very favourable impressions of our fellow-creatures; but we may say, in defence of human nature, that the most frightful of reptiles is worshipped by the most uncultivated and barbarous of mankind.

From this general picture of the serpent tribe, one great distinction obviously presents itself; namely, into those that are venomous, and those that are wholly destitute of poison. To the first belong the Viper, the Rattle-Snake, the Cobra di Capello, and all their affinities; to the other, the Common Black Snake, the Liboya, the Boiguacu, the Amphisbæna, and various others, that, though destitute of venom, do not cease to be formidable. I will therefore give their history separately, beginning with the venomous class, as they have the strongest claims to our notice and attention.

CHAPTER IX.

OF VENOMOUS SERPENTS IN GENERAL.

THE poison of serpents has been for ages one of the greatest objects of human consideration. To us who seldom feel the vengeful wound, it is merely a subject of curiosity; but to those placed in the midst of the serpent tribe, who are every day exposed to some new disaster, it becomes a matter of the most serious importance. To remedy the bite of a serpent is considered among our physicians as one of the slightest operations in medicine, but among the physicians of the East the antidotes for this calamity make up the bulk of their dispensaries. In our colder climates the venom does not appear with that

ed, have their teeth of an equal size, fixed into the jaws, and with no other apparatus for inflicting a dangerous wound than a dog or a lizard: but it is otherwise with the venomous tribe we are now describing; these are well furnished, not only with an elaboratory where the poison is formed, but a canal by which it is conducted to the jaw, a bag under the tooth for keeping it ready for every occasion, and also an aperture in the tooth itself for injecting it into the wound. To be more particular, the glands that serve to fabricate this venomous fluid are situated on each side of the head behind the eyes, and have their canals leading from thence to the bottom of the fangs in the upper jaw, where they empty into a kind of bladder, from whence the fangs on each side are seen to grow. The venom contained in this bladder is a yellowish, thick, tasteless liquor, which injected into the blood is death, yet which may be swallowed without any danger.

The fangs that give the wound come next under observation: they are large in proportion to the size of the animal that bears them; crooked, yet sharp enough to inflict a ready wound. They grow one on each side, and sometimes two, from two moveable bones in the upper jaw, which by sliding backward or forward have a power of erecting or depressing the teeth at pleasure. In these bones are also fixed many teeth, but no way venomous, and only serving to take and hold the animal's prey. Besides this apt disposition of the fangs, they are hollow within, and have an opening towards the point like the slit of a pen, through which, when the fang is pressed down upon the bladder where it grows, there is seen to issue a part of the venom that lay below. To describe this operation at once: when the serpent is irritated to give a venomous wound, it opens its formidable jaws to the widest extent; the moveable

drawn in this manner about half a spoonful of blood from his arm, he put the congealed clot upon his thigh. He then took out a much smaller serpent, which was no other than the cobra di capello; and having tied up its neck, he procured about half a drop of its venom, which he sprinkled on the clot of blood on his thigh, which instantly began to ferment and bubble, and soon changed colour, from a red into a yellow."

This he pretended was caused by the extreme malignity of that animal's venom: however, I have no doubt that the whole is either a fable, or a trick of the Indian; who, while he seemed to mix the serpent's venom, actually infused some stronger ingredient, some mineral acid, into the mass of blood, which was capable of working such a change. It cannot be supposed that any animal poison could act so powerfully upon the blood already drawn and coagulated; for a poison that could operate thus instantaneously upon cold blood, could not fail of soon destroying the animal itself.

Be this as it will, the effects of serpent poison are too well known, though the manner of operation be not so clear. As none of this malignant tribe grow to a great size, the longest of them not exceeding nine feet, they seldom seek the combat with larger animals, or offend others till they are first offended. Did they exert their malignity in proportion to their power, they could easily drive the ranks of nature before them; but they seem unconscious of their own superiority, and rather fly than offer to meet the meanest opposer. Their food chiefly consists of small prey, such as birds, moles, toads, and lizards; so that they never attack the more formidable animals, that would seldom die unrevenged. They lurk therefore in the clefts of rocks, or among stony places; they twine round the branches of trees, or

which is thicker than the body; but particularly by the tail, which in the viper, though it ends in a point, does not run tapering to so great a length as in the other. When, therefore, other distinctions fail, the difference of the tail can be discerned at a single glance.

The viper differs from most other serpents in being much slower, as also in excluding its young completely formed, and bringing them forth alive. The kindness of Providence seems exerted not only in diminishing the speed, but also the fertility of this dangerous creature. They copulate in May, and are supposed to be about three months before they bring forth, and have seldom above eleven eggs at a time. These are of the size of a blackbird's egg, and chained together in the womb like a string of beads. Each egg contains from one to four young ones; so that the whole of a brood may amount to about twenty or thirty. They continue in the womb till they come to such perfection as to be able to burst from the shell; and they are said by their own efforts to creep from confinement into the open air, where they continue for several days without taking any food whatsoever. "We have been often assured," says Mr. Pennant, "by intelligent people, of the truth of a fact, that the young of the viper when terrified will run down the throat of the parent, and seek shelter in its belly, in the same manner as the young of the opossum retire into the ventral pouch of the old one. From this," continues he, "some have imagined that the viper is so unnatural as to devour its own young; but this deserves no credit, as these animals live upon frogs, toads, lizards, and young birds, which they often swallow whole, though the morsel is often three times as thick as their own body."

The viper is capable of supporting very long abstinence, it being known that some have been kept

and pains in his back, which were attended with vomitings and purgings: during the violence of these symptoms, his sight was gone for several minutes, but he could hear all the while. He said, that in his former experiments he had never deferred making use of his remedy longer than he perceived the effects of the venom reaching his heart; but this time, being willing to satisfy the company thoroughly, and trusting to the speedy effects of his remedy, which was nothing more than olive oil, he forbore to apply any thing till he found himself exceedingly ill, and quite giddy. About an hour and a quarter after the first of his being bit, a chaffing-dish of glowing charcoal was brought in, and his naked arm was held over it, as near as he could bear, while his wife rubbed in the oil with her hand, turning his arm continually round, as if she would have roasted it over the coals: he said the poison soon abated, but the swelling did not diminish much. Most violent purgings and vomitings soon ensued; and his pulse became so low, and so often interrupted, that it was thought proper to order him a repetition of cordial potions: he said he was not sensible of any great relief from these; but that a glass or two of olive oil drank down, seemed to give him ease. Continuing in this dangerous condition, he was put to bed, where his arm was again bathed over a pan of charcoal, and rubbed with olive oil, heated in a ladle over the charcoal, by Dr. Mortimer's direction, who was the physician that drew up the account. From this last operation, he declared that he found immediate ease, as though by some charm: he soon after fell into a profound sleep, and, after about nine hours sound rest, awaked about six the next morning, and found himself very well; but in the afternoon, on drinking some rum and strong beer, so as to be almost intoxicated, the swelling returned, with much pain and

thin, hard, hollow bones, linked to each other, and rattling upon the slightest motion. It is supposed by some, that the snake acquires an additional bone every year; and that, from hence, its age may be precisely known: however this may be, certain it is, that the young snakes of a year or two old have no rattles at all; while many old ones have been killed, that had from eleven to thirteen joints each. They shake and make a noise with these rattles with prodigious quickness when they are disturbed; however, the peccary and the vulture are no way terrified at the sound, but hasten, at the signal, to seize the snake, as their most favourite prey.

It is very different with almost every other animal. The certain death which ensues from this terrible creature's bite, makes a solitude wherever it is heard. It moves along with the most majestic rapidity; neither seeking to offend the larger animals, nor fearing their insults. If unprovoked, it never meddles with any thing but its natural prey; but when accidentally trod upon, or pursued to be destroyed, it then makes a dreadful and desperate defence. It erects itself upon its tail, throws back the head, and inflicts its wound in a moment; then parts, and inflicts a second wound: after which we are told by some, that it remains torpid and inactive, without even attempting to escape.

The very instant the wound is inflicted, though small in itself, it appears more painful than the sting of a bee. This pain, which is so suddenly felt, far from abating, grows every moment more excruciating and dangerous: the limb swells; the venom reaches the head, which is soon of a monstrous size; the eyes are red and fiery; the heart beats quick, with frequent interruptions; the pain becomes insupportable and some expire under it in five or six hours, but others, who are of stronger constitutions, survive

the agony for a few hours longer, only to sink under a general mortification, which ensues and corrupts the whole body.

As a gentleman in Virginia was walking in the fields for his amusement, he accidentally trod upon a rattle-shake, that had been lurking in a stony place, which, enraged by the pressure, reared up, bit his hand, and shook its rattles. The gentleman readily perceived that he was in the most dreadful danger; but, unwilling to die unrevenged, he killed the snake, and carrying it home in his hand, threw it on the ground before his family, crying out, "I am killed, and there is my murderer!" In such an extremity the speediest remedies were the best. His arm, which was beginning to swell, was tied up near the shoulder, the wound was anointed with oil, and every precaution taken to stop the infection. By the help of a very strong constitution he recovered; but not without feeling the most various and dreadful symptoms for several weeks together. His arm, below the ligature, appeared of several colours, with a writhing among the muscles, that, to his terrified imagination, appeared like the motions of the animal that had wounded him. A fever ensued; the loss of his hair, giddiness, drought, weakness and nervous faintings; till, by slow degrees, a very strong habit overpowered the latent malignity of the poison.

Several remedies have been tried to alleviate this calamity. A decoction of the Virginian snake-root is considered as the most effectual; and at the same time the head of the animal bruised and laid upon the part affected, is thought to assist the cure. In general, however it is found to be fatal; and the Indians, sensible of this, take care to dip their arrows in the poison under the rattle-snake's fangs, when they desire to take a signal revenge of their enemies.

Thus much concerning this animal is agreed upon

by every naturalist; there are other circumstances in its history which are not so well ascertained. And first, its motion, which some describe as the swiftest imaginable, asserting, that its Indian name of *Eca-coalt*, which signifies the wind-serpent, implies its agility: others, on the contrary, assert, that it is the slowest and the most sluggish of all serpents, and that it seldom moves from one place. In this opposition of opinions, there are others who assert, that on even ground it moves but slowly, but then, among rocks, that it goes at a great rate. If we may argue from analogy, the opinion of those who contend for its slow motion seems the most probable, as the viper, which it so very much resembles, is remarkable among serpents for its inactivity.

It is said also by some, that the rattle-snake has a power of charming its prey into its mouth; and this is as strongly contradicted by others. The inhabitants of Pennsylvania are said to have opportunities of observing this strange fascination every day. The snake is often seen basking at the foot of a tree, where birds and squirrels make their residence. There, coiled upon its tail, its jaws extended, and its eyes shining like fire, the rattle-snake levels its dreadful glare upon one of the little animals above. The bird or the squirrel, whichever it may be, too plainly perceives the mischief meditating against it, and hops from branch to branch, with a timorous plaintive sound, wishing to avoid, yet incapable of breaking through the fascination; thus it continues for some time its feeble efforts and complaints, but is still seen approaching lower and lower towards the bottom branches of the tree, until, at last, as if overcome by the potency of its fears, it jumps down from the tree directly into the throat of its frightful destroyer.

In order to ascertain the truth of this story, a

mouse was put into a large iron cage, where a rattle-snake was kept, and the effect carefully observed. The mouse remained motionless at one end of the cage, while the snake at the other, continued fixed, with its eye glaring full on the little animal, and its jaws opened to their widest extent: the mouse for some time seemed eager to escape; but every effort only served to increase its terrors, and to draw it still nearer the enemy: till, after several ineffectual attempts to break the fascination, it was seen to run into the jaws of the rattle-snake, where it was instantly killed.

To these accounts the incredulous oppose the improbability of the fact; they assert that such a power ascribed to serpents, is only the remnant of a vulgar error, by which it was supposed that serpents could be charmed, and had also a power of charming. They aver, that animals are so far from running down the throat of a rattle-snake in captivity, that the snake will eat nothing in that state, but actually dies for want of subsistence.

A serpent, called the Whip-snake, is still more venomous than the former. This animal, which is a native of the East, is about five feet long, yet not much thicker than the thong of a coachman's whip. It is exceedingly venomous; and its bite is said to kill in about six hours. One of the Jesuit Missionaries happening to enter into an Indian pagoda, saw what he took to be a whip-cord lying on the floor, and stooped to take it up; but upon handling it, what was his surprise to find that it was animated, and no other than the whip-snake, of which he had heard such formidable accounts! Fortune, however, seemed favourable, to him, for he grasped it by the head, so that it had no power to bite him, and only twisted its folds up his arm. In this manner he held it, till it was killed by those who came to his assistance.



1. Rattle Snake — 2. Copperhead or Horned Rattle — 3. Greenish Rattle

To this formidable class might be added the Asp, whose bite however is not attended with those drowsy symptoms which the ancients ascribed to it. The Jaculus of Jamaica also is one of the swiftest of the serpent kind. The Hæmorrhoids, so called from the hæmorrhages which its bite is said to produce; the Seps, whose wound is very venomous, and causes the part affected to corrupt in a very short time; the Coral Serpent, which is red, and whose bite is said to be fatal. But of all others, the Cobra di Capello, or Hooded Serpent, inflicts the most deadly and incurable wounds. Of this formidable creature there are five or six different kinds; but they are all equally dangerous, and their bite followed by speedy and certain death. It is from three to eight feet long, with two large fangs hanging out of the upper jaw. It has a broad neck, and a mark of dark brown on the forehead; which, when viewed frontwise, looks like a pair of spectacles, but behind like the head of a cat. The eyes are fierce, and full of fire; the head is small, and the nose flat, though covered with very large scales, of a yellowish ash colour; the skin is white, and the large tumour on the neck is flat and covered with oblong smooth scales. The bite of this animal is said to be incurable, the patient dying in about an hour after the wound, the whole frame being dissolved into one putrid mass of corruption.*

[* "In the year 1759," says M. d'Obsonville, "I witnessed a very singular instance of the effects of the bite of one of these serpents, which happened in the midst of a corps of troops commanded by M. de Bussy. An Indian Gentoo merchant perceived a Mahometan soldier of his acquaintance going to kill one of these reptiles, which he had found sleeping under his packet; the Gentoo flew to beg its life, protesting it would do no hurt if it was not first provoked, passing at the same time his hand under its belly to carry it out of the camp, when suddenly it twisted round, and bit his little finger; upon which this unfortunate martyr of a fanatic charity gave a shriek, took a few steps, and fell down insensible. They flew to his assistance, applied the serpent-stone, fire, and scarifications; but they were all ineffectual, his blood was already coagulated. About an hour after, I saw the body as they were going

To remedy the bite of all these animals, perhaps salad-oil would be very efficacious: however, the Indians make use of a composition, which is called in Europe *Petro di Cobra*, or the *Serpent Stone*; and which, applied to the wound, is said to draw out the venom. The composition of this stone, for it is an artificial substance, is kept a secret; and perhaps its effects in extracting the venom may be imaginary: nevertheless, it is certain that it has a power of sticking to the skin, and sucking a part of the blood from the wound. This it may do somewhat in the same manner as we see a tobacco-pipe stick to the lips of a man who is smoking; yet still we are ignorant of the manner, and the secret might probably be of some use in medicine. It were to be wished, therefore, that those who go into India would examine into this composition, and give us the result of their inquiries; but I fear that it is not to benefit mankind, that our travellers now go to India.

CHAPTER X.

OF SERPENTS WITHOUT VENOM.

THE class of serpents without poison may be distinguished from those that are venomous by their wanting the fang teeth; their heads also are not so thick in proportion to their bodies; and, in general, they taper off to the tail more gradually in a point. But notwithstanding their being destitute of venom, they do not cease to be formidable: some grow to a size by which they become the most powerful animals of the forest; and even the smallest and most

to burn it, and I thought I perceived some indications of a complete dissolution of the blood.”]

harmless of this slender tribe find protection from the similitude of their form.

The fangs make the great distinction among serpents, and all this tribe are without them. Their teeth are short, numerous, and, in the smaller kinds, perfectly inoffensive; they lie in either jaw, as in frogs and fishes, their points bending backwards, the better to secure their prey. They want that artificial mechanism by which the poisonous tribe inflict such deadly wounds; they have no gland in the head for preparing venom, no conduits for conveying it to the teeth, no receptacles there, no hollow in the instrument that inflicts the wound. Their bite, when the teeth happen to be large enough to penetrate the skin, (for in general they are too small for this purpose,) is attended with no other symptoms than those of an ordinary puncture; and many of this tribe, as if sensible of their own impotence, cannot be provoked to bite, though never so rudely assaulted. They hiss, dart out their forky tongues, erect themselves on the tail, and call up all their terrors to intimidate their aggressors; but seem to consider their teeth as unnecessary instruments of defence, and never attempt to use them. Even among the largest of this kind, the teeth are never employed in the most desperate engagements. When a hare or a bird is caught, the teeth may serve to prevent such small game from escaping; but when a buffalo or a tiger is to be encountered, it is by the strong folds of the body, by the fierce verberations of the tail, that the enemy is destroyed: by thus twining round, and drawing the knot with convulsive energy, this enormous reptile breaks every bone in the quadruped's body, and then at one morsel devours its prey.

From hence we may distinguish the unvenomous tribe into two kinds: first, into those which are seldom found of any considerable magnitude, and that

never offend animals larger or more powerful than themselves, but which find their chief protection in flight, or in the doubtfulness of their form; secondly, into such as grow to an enormous size, fear no enemy, but indiscriminately attack all other animals and devour them. Of the first kind is the common Black Snake, the Blind Worm, the Esculapian Serpent, the Amphisbæna, and several others. Of the second, the Liboya, the Boiguacu, the Depona, and the Boiquatrara.

The Black Snake is the largest of English serpents, sometimes exceeding four feet in length. The neck is slender; the middle of the body thick; the back and sides covered with small scales; the belly with oblong, narrow, transverse plates; the colour of the back and sides are of a dusky brown; the middle of the back marked with two rows of small black spots, running from the head to the tail; the plates on the belly are dusky; the scales on the sides are of a bluish white; the teeth are small and serrated, lying on each side of the jaws in two rows. The whole species is perfectly inoffensive, taking shelter in dung-hills, and among bushes in moist places; from whence they seldom remove, unless in the midst of the day in summer, when they are called out by the heat to bask themselves in the sun. If disturbed or attacked, they move away among the brambles with great swiftness; but if too closely pursued, they hiss and threaten, and thus render themselves formidable, though incapable of offending.

The black snake preys upon frogs, insects, worms, mice, and young birds; and, considering the smallness of the neck, it is amazing how large an animal it will swallow. The black snake of Virginia, which is larger than ours, and generally grows to six feet long, takes a prey proportionable to its size,—partridges, chickens, and young ducks. It is generally

found in the neighbourhood of the hen-roost, and will devour the eggs even while the hen is sitting upon them: these it swallows whole; and often, after it has done the mischief, will coil itself round in the nest.

The whole of this tribe are oviparous, excluding eighty or a hundred eggs at a time, which are laid in dunghills or hot-beds, the heat of which, aided by that of the sun, brings them to maturity. During winter they lie torpid in banks of hedges, and under old trees.

The Blind Worm is another harmless reptile, with a formidable appearance. The usual length of this species is eleven inches. The eyes are red; the head small; the neck still more slender: from that part the body grows suddenly, and continues of an equal bulk to the tail, which ends quite blunt: the colour of the back is cinereous, marked with very small lines, composed of minute black specks; the sides are of a reddish cast; the belly dusky, and marked like the back. The motion of this serpent is slow; from which, and from the smallness of the eyes, are derived its names, some calling it the Slow, and some the Blind Worm. Like all the rest of the kind in our climates, they lie torpid during winter, and are sometimes found in vast numbers twisted together. This animal, like the former, is perfectly innocent; however, like the viper, it brings forth its young alive. Gesner tells us, that one of these being struck on the head when it was pregnant, it immediately cast forth its young.

The Amphisbæna, or the Double-headed Serpent, is remarkable for moving along with either the head or the tail foremost; and from thence it has been thought to have two heads. This error took its rise from the thickness of the tail, which at a distance may be mistaken for another head. Upon a nearer view, however, the error is easily discovered, and the

animal will be found formed according to the usual course of nature. It is as thick at one end as at the other; and the colour of the skin is like that of the earth, being rough, hard, and variously spotted. Some have affirmed that its bite is dangerous; but this must be a mistake, as it wants the fangs, and consequently the elaboratory that prepares the poison.

These animals are only formidable from their similitude to the viper tribe; and in some countries where such reptiles are common, they make the distinction so exactly, that while they destroy serpents of one kind with great animosity, they take others into their houses, and even into their bosoms, with a kind of unaccountable affection. The Esculapian Serpent of Italy is among this number. It is there suffered to crawl about the chambers, and often gets into the beds where people lie. It is a yellow serpent, of about an ell long; and though innocent, yet will bite when exasperated. They are said to be great destroyers of mice, and this may be the reason why they are taken under human protection. The Bohuna of Ceylon is equally a favourite among the natives, and they consider the meeting it as a sign of good luck. The Surinam Serpent, which some improperly call the Ammodytes, is equally harmless and desirable among the savages of that part of the world. They consider themselves as extremely happy if this animal come into their huts. The colours of this serpent are so many and beautiful that they surpass all description; and these perhaps are the chief inducements to the savages to consider its visits as so very fortunate. A still greater favourite is the Prince of Serpents, a native of Japan, that has not its equal for beauty. The scales which cover the back are reddish, finely shaded, and marbled with large spots of irregular

figures mixed with black. The fore part of the head is covered with large beautiful scales, the jaws bordered with yellow, the forehead marked with a black marbled streak, and the eyes handsome and lively. But of all others, the Gerenda of the East Indies is the most honoured and esteemed. To this animal, which is finely spotted with various colours, the natives of Calicut pay divine honours; and while their deity lies coiled up, which is its usual posture, the people fall upon their faces before it with stupid adoration. The African Gerenda is larger, and worshipped in the same manner by the inhabitants of the coasts of Mozambique. The skin is not so finely spotted as the former, but it is variegated all over the body with very fine white, ash-coloured, and black spots. The brilliancy of colouring in these reptiles would only serve with us to increase our disgust; but in those countries where they are common, distinctions are made, and even in this horrid class there are some eyes that can discover beauty.

But in the larger tribe of serpents there is nothing but danger to be apprehended. This formidable class, though without venom, have something frightful in their colour, as well as their size and form. They want that vivid hue with which the savages are so much pleased in the lesser kinds; they are all found of a dusky colour, with large teeth, which are more formidable than dangerous.

The first of this class is the Great Liboya of Java and Brasil, which Legaut affirms he has seen fifty feet long. Nor is he singular in this report, as many of the missionaries affirm the same; and we have the concurrent testimony of historians as a further proof. The largest animal of this kind which has been brought into Europe, is but thirty-six feet long; and it is probable, that much greater have been seen and destroyed, before they were thought worth send-

ing so far to satisfy European curiosity. The most usual length, however, of the Liboya, is about twenty feet, and the thickness in proportion. The teeth are small in proportion to the body, nor are they used but when it seizes the smallest prey. It lies in wait for wild animals near the paths, and when it throws itself upon them, it wraps them round so closely as to break all the bones; then moistening the whole body over with its slaver, it makes it fit for deglutition and swallows it whole.

The Boiguacu is supposed to be the next in magnitude, and has often been seen to swallow a goat whole. It is thickest in the middle of the body, and grows shorter and smaller towards the head and the tail; on the middle of the back there is a chain of small black spots running along the length of it, and on each side there are large round black spots, at some distance from each other, which are white in the centre; between these, near the belly, there are two rows of lesser black spots, which run parallel to the back. It has a double row of sharp teeth in each jaw, of a white colour, and shining like mother-of-pearl. The head is broad, and over the eyes it is raised into two prominences; near the extremity of the tail there are two claws, resembling those of birds.

These serpents lie hid in thickets, from whence they sally out unawares, and raising themselves upright on their tails, will attack both men and beasts. They make a loud hissing noise when exasperated; and sometimes, winding up trees, will dart down upon travellers, and twist themselves so closely round their bodies, as to despatch them in a very few minutes. Condamine, however, affirms, that their bite is not dangerous; for though the teeth are so large as to inspire the beholder with terror, yet the wound they make is attended with no dangerous conse-

quences whatever. Dellon affirms, that they generally haunt desert places; and though they are sometimes seen near great towns, or on the banks of rivers, yet it is generally after some great inundation; he never saw any but what were dead, and they appeared to him like the trunk of a great tree lying on the ground.

To this class of large serpents we may refer the Depona, a native of Mexico, with a very large head and great jaws. The mouth is armed with cutting crooked teeth, among which there are two longer than the rest, placed in the fore part of the upper jaw, but very different from the fangs of the viper. All round the mouth there is a broad scaly border; and the eyes are so large, that they give it a very terrible aspect. The forehead is covered with very large scales, on which are placed others that are smaller, curiously ranged; those on the back are grayish, and along it runs a double chain, whose ends are joined in the manner of a buckler. Each side of the belly is marbled with large square spots, of a chesnut colour; in the middle of which is a spot, which is round and yellow. They avoid the sight of man, and consequently never do much harm.

Such are the most noted animals of the serpent tribe; but to recount all would be a vain as well as an useless endeavour. In those countries where they abound, their discriminations are so numerous, and their colour so various, that every thicket seems to produce a new animal. The same serpent is often found to bring forth animals of eight or ten different colours: and the naturalist who attempts to arrange them by that mark, will find that he has made distinctions which are entirely disowned by nature: however, a very considerable number might be added to enlarge the catalogue; but having supplied a general history, the mind turns away from a subject

where every object presents something formidable or loathsome to the imagination. Indeed, the whole tribe resemble each other so nearly, that the history of one may almost serve for every other. They are all terrible to the imagination, all frightful to behold in their fury, and have long been considered as a race of animals between whom and man there is a natural antipathy.

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